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With an APPENDIX.

" *Nunquam satis laudari dignè poterit Philosophia, cui, qui pareat, omne tempus ætatis sine molestiâ possit degere.*" CIC. *de Senect. Cap.* I.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXXVII.

Page 254. l. 33. after ‘ ardour,’ insert *as*.
354. l. 8. for ‘ Nealling,’ read *Nealliny*.
534. lines 2. and 10., and p. 535. l. 23., for ‘ Peter,’ read *Perkyn* Warbeck.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1818.

Art. I. *View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages.* By Henry Hallam, Esq. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

By the Middle Ages, we usually understand the period between the destruction of the western empire in the fifth century and the revival of learning under the auspices of a new tutelary power, the art of printing, about the middle of the fifteenth. The chronological expanse, therefore, which is included in these learned volumes of Mr. Hallam, embraces the revolution of about a thousand years; and, though in particular portions of these centuries the human mind seems to have been benumbed by a sort of irresistible lethargy, during which a thick night of ignorance and superstition overspred the world, yet even in this inauspicious æra we behold some illuminated spots which are rendered still brighter by the depth of the surrounding shade. Mr. Hallam accordingly informs us in his preface that it is his object 'to exhibit, in a series of historical dissertations, a comprehensive survey of the chief circumstances that can interest a philosophical inquirer during this period.' Notwithstanding, indeed, the general state of intellectual paralysis, with which the nations of Europe were at this time oppressed, some individual minds appear, particularly among the schoolmen, in which we discern a force of conception and an acuteness of reasoning that have not often been manifested in better days; and we have only to regret that mental powers of such an elevated species were wasted on barren topics, and contributed so little to the benefit of mankind.

The Middle Ages, moreover, form an epoch of very interesting contemplation on account of the principles of mighty revolutions in the moral and political state of man, which had then begun to germinate, and which have since unfolded their effects in the spirit and institutions of more modern times. Among these principles, we may reckon the operations of the feudal system, which served to limit the powers of the monarch, in the plenitude of which it seemed to originate; and the spirit of chivalry, which, founded on the idea of individual prowess consecrated to the redress of individual wrong, gradually excited a strong sentiment of abhorrence against more general oppression, and thus served to kindle and to keep alive the flame of liberty.

One of the most remarkable features in the history of the Middle Ages is the predominance of the papal power. No tyranny was ever so absolute as this; and it was so despotic as to render other despotisms subordinate to its domination. It was mighty over the mightiest: it scourged royalty even with its own sceptre; and, unlike other despotisms, which are strong at the centre and weak at the extremities, it was most potent at the remotest points of its agency. It was the victory of opinion over strength, and caused the most gigantic physical force to crouch before a mere phantom of the imagination. Indeed the history of this æra more particularly comes under the name and character of "Ecclesiastical;" since the governments of all the European states during the greater part of it were subordinate to the policy of the church. The influence of the court of Rome was universally felt; and all the civil and judicial offices were exercised by churchmen, who were more or less interested in supporting the pretensions of that ambitious court.

The present historical view of the state of Europe during this epoch is divided into nine chapters; the first of which exhibits 'The History of France from its Conquest by Clovis to the Invasion of Naples by Charles the Eighth.' This period is marked by the rise and growth of the French monarchy, under the first and second race of kings, including Charlemagne; with the accession of the Capetian dynasty, which, in one of its remote branches, still preserves possession of the throne. Mr. Hallam has not made his work so much a regular history as a characteristic portraiture of the times to which it refers. It has not the sterile dryness of an abridgement, though it does not possess the fertile copiousness of a circumstantial narrative: but it is instructive, luminous, and animated; and it may be perused with profit as well as amusement. — The character of Charlemagne is thus ably delineated by him:

> 'In analysing the characters of heroes, it is hardly possible to separate altogether the share of fortune from their own. The epoch made by Charlemagne in the history of the world, the illustrious families which prided themselves in him as their progenitor, the very legends of romance, which are full of his fabulous

exploits, have cast a lustre around his head, and testify the greatness that has embodied itself in his name. None indeed of Charlemagne's wars can be compared with the Saracenic victory of Charles Martel; but *that* was a contest for freedom, *his* for conquest; and fame is more partial to successful aggression than to patriotic resistance. As a scholar, his acquisitions were probably little superior to those of his unrespected son; and in several points of view the glory of Charlemagne might be extenuated by an analytical dissection. But rejecting a mode of judging equally uncandid and fallacious, we shall find that he possessed in every thing that grandeur of conception which distinguishes extraordinary minds. Like Alexander, he seemed born for universal innovation; in a life restlessly active we see him reforming the coinage, and establishing the legal divisions of money; gathering about him the learned of every country; founding schools and collecting libraries; interfering, but with the tone of a king, in religious controversies; aiming, though prematurely, at the formation of a naval force; attempting, for the sake of commerce, the magnificent enterprize of uniting the Rhine and Danube, and meditating to mould the discordant codes of Roman and barbarian laws into an uniform system.

'The great qualities of Charlemagne were indeed alloyed by the vices of a barbarian and a conqueror. Nine wives, whom he divorced with very little ceremony, attest the licence of his private life, which his temperance and frugality can hardly be said to redeem. Unsparing of blood, though not constitutionally cruel, and wholly indifferent to the means which his ambition prescribed, he beheaded in one day 4,000 Saxons; an act of atrocious butchery, after which his persecuting edicts, pronouncing the pain of death against those who refused baptism, or even who ate flesh during Lent, seem scarcely worthy of notice. This union of barbarous ferocity with elevated views of national improvement might suggest the parallel of Peter the Great. But the degrading habits and brute violence of the Muscovite place him at an immense distance from the restorer of the empire. A strong sympathy for intellectual excellence was the leading characteristic of Charlemagne, and this undoubtedly biassed him in the chief political error of his conduct, that of encouraging the power and pretensions of the hierarchy. But perhaps his greatest eulogy is written in the disgraces of succeeding times and the miseries of Europe. He stands alone like a beacon upon a waste, or a rock in the broad ocean. His sceptre was as the bow of Ulysses, which could not be drawn by any weaker hand. In the dark ages of European history, the reign of Charlemagne affords a solitary resting place between two long periods of turbulence and ignominy, deriving the advantages of contrast both from those of the preceding dynasty, and of a posterity, for whom he had formed an empire which they were unworthy and unequal to maintain.' (Vol. i. p. 11—13.)

The personage, who might most fitly be compared with Charlemagne, would perhaps be the English monarch Alfred, from the proximity of the times and the similarity of the circumstances in which they were placed: but Alfred had less of the ambition of a conqueror; and his character, on an impartial examination, would be found to stand higher in the moral and intellectual scale. Both these great sovereigns were surrounded with a dense atmosphere of ignorance and barbarism; and both exerted themselves with the most exemplary diligence and laudable ardour, to diffuse among their subjects the blessings of knowlege and civilization. The education of both had been originally neglected; and both furnish remarkable instances of two sovereigns who, though nurtured in ignorance, made their own intellectual improvement and that of their subjects the primary object of their reign. When Charlemagne had already extended his sway over a large part of western Europe, he condescended to be instructed in grammar by Peter of Pisa, and in other branches of knowlège by Alcuin and Diaconus*; and Eginhart, who has written his life, says that it was his custom to have some historical or religious book read while he was at table, and that he was particularly fond of Augustin's work "*De Civitate Dei.*" It does not appear, however, that Charlemagne himself ever attained to the same degree of literary proficiency which Alfred had certainly acquired: for the passage of Eginhart, which has been often quoted, "*Tentabat et scribere,*" &c., does not imply any thing more than a habit of unsuccessful diligence in learning to write. Alfred, however, was a *clerk* of a higher order than Charlemagne, for he actually composed several works in his vernacular idiom, and they are, perhaps, the earliest specimens of that idiom which are any where to be found. If, however, Charlemagne himself did not make any considerable progress in literary acquirements, he was more successful in promoting the improvement of others. He invited to his court all the persons of his age who were the most conspicuous for learning, and whom he induced by munificent rewards to undertake the instruction of the youth in the principal towns. He also established schools in the different monasteries, in which the children of the peasantry, who were then in a state of bondage, appear to have been principally instructed: for we find an order quoted in Launoy, *De Schol. Celebr.*, p. 8., in which it is said, "*Non solum servilis conditionis infantes sed etiam ingenuorum filios aggregent, sibique socient.*" Charlemagne was sometimes wont to visit in person the schools which he had established, particularly the *Schola Palatina*, which was attached to his royal residence; when he promised to reward the diligent with rich bishoprics and monasteries, and threatened the idle with every mark of his displeasure. Alfred had, perhaps, to struggle with still greater difficulties than Charlemagne, in promoting intellectual cultivation; for, when he came to the throne, he found all the libraries destroyed by the ravages of the Danes, and almost every trace of literary proficiency obliterated: but his mind was of that rare sort which is never destitute of resources, but creates what it does not find, and seems to give new life to all that is placed within the sphere of its agency. If we could behold the actual state of England at his coronation and at his death, we should be astonished at the wonderful change which his single genius had, in a few years, produced in the condition of the people.

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* Crevier, *Hist. de l'Université de Paris.*

Mr. Hallam takes a just and masterly view of the causes, policy, and results of the war which was waged against France by our Edward III. He duly appreciates the advantages which the character of that King, and more particularly the virtues of his son, gave him in the contest.

> 'Chivalry,' says he, 'was then in its zenith; and in all the virtues which adorned the knightly character, in courtesy, munificence, gallantry, in all delicate and magnanimous feelings, none were so conspicuous as Edward III. and the Black Prince. As later princes have boasted of being the best gentlemen, they might claim to be the prowest knights in Europe; a character not quite dissimilar, yet of more high pretension. Their court was, as it were, the sun of that system, which embraced the valour and nobility of the Christian world; and the respect which was felt for their excellences, while it drew many to their side, mitigated in all the rancour and ferociousness of hostility. This war was like a great tournament, where the combatants fought indeed *à outrance*, but with all the courtesy and fair play of such an entertainment, and almost as much for the honour of their ladies. In the school of the Edwards were formed men not inferior in any nobleness of disposition to their masters, Manni, and the Captal de Buch, Felton, Knollys, and Calverley, Chandos, and Lancaster. On the French side, especially after Du Guesclin came on the stage, these had rivals almost equally deserving of renown. If we could forget, what never should be forgotten, the wretchedness and devastation that fell upon a great kingdom, too dear a price for the display of any heroism, we might count these English wars in France among the brightest periods in history.' (P. 50.)

The wars in the reign of Edward III. and Henry V. certainly were both highly popular in this country. They were in unison with the sentiments and genius of the age: every individual seems to have prided himself in the conquest of France; and, as Mr. Hallam has very sensibly remarked, some centuries elapsed before even the gravest of our countrymen were struck with the injustice and folly of the enterprize.

Seldom has the miserable existence of a tyrant been more powerfully depicted than in the following account of Louis XI.; in which, as we may perceive, the wretchedness that more visibly characterized the close of his reign was perhaps equalled by the internal vexations and inquietudes which were felt in every period of his life.

'Two years before his death, he was struck with an apoplexy, from which he never wholly recovered. As he felt his disorder increasing, he shut himself up in a palace near Tours, to hide from the world the knowledge of his decline. His solitude was like that of Tiberius at Capreæ, full of terror and suspicion, and deep consciousness of universal hatred. All ranks, he well knew, had their several injuries to remember: the clergy, whose liberties he had sacrificed to the see of Rome, by revoking the Pragmatic Sanction of Charles VII.; the princes, whose blood he had poured upon the scaffolds; the parliament, whose course of justice he had turned aside; the commons, who groaned under his extortion, and were plundered by his soldiery. The palace, fenced with portcullises and spikes of iron, was guarded by archers and cross-bow men, who shot at any that approached by night. Few entered this den; but to them he showed himself in magnificent apparel, contrary to his former custom, hoping thus to disguise the change of his meagre body. He distrusted his friends and kindred, his daughter and his son; the last of whom he had not suffered even to read or write, lest he should too soon become his rival. No man ever so much feared death, to avert which he stooped to every meanness and sought every remedy. His physician had sworn, that if he were dismissed, the king would not survive a week; and Louis, enfeebled by sickness and terror, bore the rudest usage from this man, and endeavoured to secure his services by vast rewards. Always credulous in relics, though seldom restrained by superstition from any crime, he eagerly bought up treasures of this sort, and even procured a Calabrian hermit, of noted sanctity, to journey as far as Tours in order to restore his health. Philip de Comines, who attended him during this infirmity, draws a parallel between the torments he then endured, and those he had formerly inflicted on others. Indeed the whole of his life was vexation of spirit. "I have known him," says Comines, "and been his servant, in the flower of his age, and in the time of his greatest prosperity; but never did I see him without uneasiness and care. Of all amusements he loved only the chace, and hawking in its season. And in this he had almost as much uneasiness as pleasure; for he rode hard and got up early, and sometimes went a great way and regarded no weather: so that he used to return very weary and almost ever in wrath with some one. I think that from his childhood he never had any respite of labour and trouble to his death. And I am certain that if all the happy days of his life in which he had more enjoyment than uneasiness were numbered, they would be found very few; and at least that they would be twenty of sorrow for every one of pleasure." ' (P. 94.)

The above extract, though it exhibits only a particular instance, may be regarded as a generic representation of the pangs and sorrows which are almost inseparable from the condition of a tyrannical ruler. They prove that no man makes such a false estimate of happiness, as he who seeks it in trampling on the rights and liberties of his fellow-creatures: that no man can afflict himself so much as he who systematically labours to render others unhappy; and that the mere consciousness of being an object of hatred, which is the necessary concomitant of cruelty and oppression, must fill the mind with those indefinite apprehensions, before which all security fades and all joy must disappear.

The 'Feudal System, especially in France,' is the subject of Mr. Hallam's second chapter, which exhibits a great portion of sagacity and research. It displays the diligence of an antiquary and the judgment of a critic; evinces that he knows how to be minute without being tedious; and manifests that, even when he penetrates farthest into the recesses of antiquity, his page is never obscured by cobwebs and dust.

Chapter the third embraces 'The History of Italy, from the Extinction of the Carlovingian Emperors to the Invasion of Naples by Charles VIII.' This period extends from the close of the ninth to that of the fifteenth century; or from the year 888 to 1494. The early centuries of this epoch are distinguished by the rise and growth of the Free Cities; which, under the energy of republican institutions, acquired a degree of power, opulence, and renown, that seemed too great for the space which they occupied. A free government is alone calculated to give the highest degree of intensity to the active powers of man; creating resources and producing effects, that seem impossible to be realised in those states in which despotism lowers the tone of sentiment, paralyzes mental vigour, and relaxes corporeal activity.

'In Galvaneus Flamma, a Milanese writer,' says Mr. Hallam, 'we find a curious statistical account of that city in 1288, which, though of a date about thirty years after its liberties had been overthrown by usurpation, must be considered as implying a high degree of previous advancement, even if we make allowance, as probably we should, for some exaggeration. The inhabitants are reckoned at 200,000; the private houses 13,000; the nobility alone dwelt in sixty streets; 8,000 gentlemen, or heavy cavalry, (milites,) might be mustered from the city and its district, and 240,000 men capable of arms; a force sufficient, the writer observes, to crush all the Saracens. There were in Milan six hundred notaries, two hundred physicians, eighty school-masters, and fifty transcribers of manuscripts. In the district were one hundred and fifty castles with adjoining villages.' (P. 271.)

When we consider that the territory of Milan was not, probably, at this period, more extensive than the county of Surrey, the above description of the power and opulence, to which it had attained, bears ample testimony to the salutary operation of a free government, in improving the condition of mankind, even in an age of great comparative ignorance and superstition.

'It was in the best age of their liberties,' observes Mr. Hallam, 'immediately after the battle of Legnano, that the Milanese commenced the great canal which conducts the waters of the Tesino to their capital, a work very extraordinary for that time. During the same period the cities gave proofs of internal prosperity that in many instances have descended to our own observation, in the solidity and magnificence of their architecture. Ecclesiastical structures were perhaps more splendid in France and England; but neither country could pretend to match the palaces and public buildings, the streets flagged with stone, the bridges of the same material, or the commodious private houses of Italy.' (P. 272.)

With regard to individual opulence, and in all the materials of domestic enjoyment and general prosperity, the greater part of the Italian states, during several of the middle ages, were as superior to the rest of Europe as England at present is to most of the countries on the continent. This superiority may, in both instances, be traced to the same cause; viz. the genius of freedom, diffusing freshness, animation, and vigour through every branch of human industry.

In the period between the years 1250 and 1494 the intellectual culture of the Italians made a considerable progress; and the human mind, as if awaking from a long slumber, began to feel conscious of its powers. The political history of Italy, at the epoch just mentioned, describes the establishment of petty despotisms on the ruin of those republican institutions, under which most of the cities had previously flourished.

'At the latter end of the thirteenth century,' says the author, 'there were almost as many princes in the north of Italy as there had been free cities in the preceding age.—Gradually, however, they became less numerous; a quantity of obscure tyrants were swept away from the smaller cities, and the people, careless or hopeless of liberty, were glad to exchange the rule of despicable petty usurpers for that of more distinguished and powerful families. About the year 1350, the central parts of Lombardy had fallen under the dominion of the Visconti. Four other houses occupied the second rank; of Este at Ferrara and Modena; of Scala at Verona, which under Cane and Mastino della Scala had seemed likely to contest with the lords of Milan the supremacy over Lombardy; of Carrara at Padua, which later than any Lombard city had resigned her liberty; and of Gonzaga at Mantua, which, without ever obtaining any material extension of territory, continued, probably for that reason, to reign undisturbed till the eighteenth century. But these united were hardly a match, as they sometimes experienced, for the Visconti. That family, the object of every league formed in Italy for more than fifty years, in constant hostility to the church, and well enured to interdicts and excommunications, producing no one man of military talents, but fertile of tyrants, detested for their perfidiousness and cruelty, was nevertheless enabled, with almost uninterrupted success, to add city after city to the dominion of Milan, till it absorbed all the north of Italy. Under Gian Galeazzo, whose reign began in 1385, the viper (their armorial bearing) assumed indeed a menacing attitude; he overturned the great family of Scala, and annexed their extensive possessions to his own; no power intervened from Vercelli in Piedmont to Feltre and Belluno; while the free cities of Tuscany, Pisa, Siena, Perugia, and even Bologna, as if by a kind of witchcraft, voluntarily called in a dissembling tyrant as their master.' (P. 289.)

The account given by Mr. Hallam, of the different changes in the political institutions of Florence, is one of the most perspicuous and definite with which we are acquainted. In a short compass, he has exhibited a very characteristic delineation of that turbulent democracy, and shewn how its various and more or less popular revolutions at last terminated in the domination of a single family. If we cannot call the Medici *usurpers*, because the establishment of their power had the acquiescence of the people, yet they must be considered as accomplices in the destruction of the public liberty. Their liberality and munificence had secured the general affection; and the splendid encouragement, which they gave to literature and the arts, has caused their name to be associated with the most interesting recollections: but still we ought never to forget that they were rather friends to the arts which embellish life, than to the liberty which ennobles man. The wealth which the Medici had acquired, and by the liberal distribution of which they had paved the way for their elevation to supreme power, they had gained by the vigour and enterprize of their commercial transactions: but commerce owes its energy to liberty; and, when the Medici destroyed the liberties of Florence, they might have reflected that they destroyed that which had made them great.

In the part of this author's work which we are now considering, he has presented us with a perspicuous and vivid description of the struggle for maritime superiority, between Pisa and Genoa, and between the latter city and Venice. The naval power of Pisa was annihilated by the destruction of her fleet in the battle of Meloria in 1284: her commerce disappeared; and her former greatness became only a matter of historical recollection. Pisa, which had once been the rival of Florence, was at last so degraded as to be purchased by the Florentines from one of the family of the Visconti by whom it had been subjugated. The maritime wars between Genoa and Venice were conducted with the most furious obstinacy on both sides, but without any decisive results. Both parties were exhausted; and Mr. Hallam justly remarks that 'each of the two republics had sufficient reason to lament their mutual prejudices, and the selfish cupidity of their merchants, which usurps, in all maritime countries, the name of patriotism.' Individuals may profit by war, but it can never be beneficial to communities; though the persons, who are enriched by military spoliation, too often succeed in persuading nations, either by their sophistry or their clamour, that war is a desirable event, and to be placed in the catalogue of human benefits. Those who extol the blessings of war remind us of the distributors of lottery-puffs, who would induce us to think that picking our pockets is the way to make us rich. We have had so much war in our time, and so much of an anti-pacific spirit is still prevalent in the world, that we are unwilling to let any opportunity escape of expressing our abhorrence of that greatest of human ills.

Mr. Hallam's fourth chapter is intitled 'The History of Spain to the Conquest of Granada.' During the middle ages, some of the kingdoms, into which Spain was divided, enjoyed a higher degree of liberty than any part of Europe. Even villenage, or the exclusion of the peasant from civil rights, which was so long continued in this country, seems never to have been established in what Mr. Hallam calls 'the Hispano-Gothic kingdoms.'—'Since nothing,' he observes, 'makes us forget the arbitrary distinctions of rank so much as participation in any common calamity, every man who had escaped the great shipwreck of liberty and religion in the mountains of Asturias was invested with a personal dignity which gave him value in his own eyes and those of his country. It is probably this sentiment transmitted to posterity, and gradually fixing the national character,

racter, that has produced the elevation of manner, remarked by travellers in the Castilian peasant.' (P. 396.)

Chartered towns are of an earlier date in Spain than in either France or England. The first instance of this kind was in 1020, in the reign of Alfonso V., when, in the Cortes at Leon, he invested that city with regular corporate privileges. In every town, Mr. Hallam remarks, the monarch had a governor to receive the usual tributes, and to superintend the police as well as the fortified places within his district: but the administration of justice was restricted to the inhabitants and their elected judges. 'Even the executive power of the royal officer was regarded with jealousy; he was forbidden to use violence towards any one without legal process; and by the fuero (or charter) of Logrono, if he attempted to enter forcibly into a private house he might be killed with impunity.' In the kingdom of Castile, the monarch could not demand any money, service, or loan, without the previous consent of the Cortes; and, even Charles I., though the Cortes sometimes refused to comply with his demands of money, never ventured to levy it without their consent. In "The Recopilacion, or Code of Castilian Law, published by Philip II.," was included a positive declaration against the arbitrary imposition of taxes; and, though this declaration was often violated by that oppressive tyrant, the Cortes never failed, during his reign, to remonstrate against the violation; and the law itself remained unrepealed till the present age.

While the representatives of the people in Castile possessed the sole right of taxation, they at the same time exercised another privilege which is equally necessary to the preservation of public liberty; that of superintending the expenditure. 'The Cortes,' says Mr. Hallam, 'in the best times at least, were careful to grant no money until they were assured that what had been already levied on their constituents had been properly employed. They refused a subsidy in 1390, because they had already given so much, and "not knowing how so great a sum had been expended, it would be a great dishonour and mischief to promise any more."' — When a tax was granted, it was appropriated to a particular purpose, and could not be applied to any other; and, though we have witnessed in our times that, even in a British parliament, numerous attempts to introduce a greater economy into the expenditure of the civil list have been rendered abortive by the influence of the crown, yet, in the thirteenth century, we find the Castilian Cortes boldly remonstrating against any profuse expenditure *in the household* of the sovereign.

'They told Alfonso X., in 1258, in the homely style of that age, that they thought it fitting that the king and his wife should eat at the rate of a hundred and fifty maravedis a day, and no more; and that the king should order his attendants to eat more moderately than they did. They remonstrated more forcibly against the prodigality of John II. Even in 1559, they spoke with an undaunted Castilian spirit to Philip II. "Sir, the expences of your royal establishment and household are much increased; and we conceive it would much redound to the good of these kingdoms, that your Majesty should direct them to be lowered, both as a relief to your wants, and that all the great men and other subjects of your Majesty may take example therefrom to restrain the great disorder and excess they commit in that respect."' (P. 419.)

The powers enjoyed by our own parliament were not altogether so ample as those which were exercised by the Cortes of Castile till the time of Charles I.; in whose reign, and in that of his successors, the liberties of the people were gradually merged in the power of the crown. Besides the general oath in which the Spanish kings, at their coronation, swore to observe the existing laws, they also took an oath to obey the laws which the Cortes might enact. In 1469, we find the Cortes of Ocana remonstrating 'with Henry IV. for allying himself with England rather than France;' and giving 'as the first reason of complaint that, according to the laws of your kingdom, when the kings have any thing of great importance in hand, they ought not to undertake it without advice and knowledge of the chief towns and cities of your kingdom.'

A higher spirit of liberty appears to have prevailed in Aragon than in Castile; and the former kingdom, at the same time, presents a more perfect and probably a more antient form of representative government. It was the liberty of Aragon that made some compensation to the natives for the sterility of the soil; and Mr. Hallam has quoted a passage from the acts of the Cortes of that kingdom in 1451, in which they declare, with a spirit worthy of the best ages of Greece or Rome, "We have always heard of old time, and it is found by experience, that seeing the great barrenness of this land, and the poverty of the realm, if it were not for the liberties thereof, the folk would go hence to live and abide in other realms and lands more fruitful." In conformity with a sentiment of this kind, the Aragonese had devised a more efficacious safeguard for their liberties than any which has been adopted by other nations in modern times. This brave people 'established a positive right of maintaining their liberties by arms.'

'It was contained in the Privilege of Union granted by Alfonso III., in 1287, after a violent conflict with his subjects; but which was afterwards so completely abolished and even eradicated from the records of the kingdom that its precise words have never been recovered. According to Zurita, it consisted of two articles; first that, in case of the king's proceeding forcibly against any member of the Union without previous sentence of the justiciary, the rest should be absolved from their allegiance; secondly, that he should hold Cortes every year in Saragosa. During the two subsequent reigns of James II. and Alfonso IV. little pretence seems to have been given for the exercise of this right. But dissensions breaking out under Peter IV. in 1347, rather on account of his attempt to settle the crown upon his daughter than of any specific public grievances, the nobles had recourse to the Union; that last voice,' says Blancas, of an almost expiring state, full of weight and dignity to chastise the presumption of kings. They assembled at Saragosa, and used a remarkable seal for all their public instruments, an engraving from which may be seen in the historian I have just quoted. It represents the king sitting upon his throne with the confederates kneeling in a suppliant attitude around, to denote their loyalty and unwillingness to offend. But in the back-ground tents and lines of spears are discovered as a hint of their resolution and ability to defend themselves. The legend is *Sigillum Unionis Aragonum.* This respectful demeanour, towards a sovereign against whom they were waging war, reminds us of the language held out by our Long Parliament, before the Presbyterian party was overthrown. And although it has been lightly censured as inconsistent and hypocritical, this tone is the safest that men can adopt, who, deeming themselves under the necessity of withstanding the reigning monarch, are anxious to avoid a change of dynasty or subversion of their constitution.' (P. 439.)

The Aragonese, who were assembled in arms against their monarch, were defeated in 1348: but, though the royal power thus triumphed over the privilege of resistance which the constitution of Aragon had established, and though the king cut in pieces with his sword the original instrument in which it had been ratified, yet the constitutional liberty of the kingdom was improved, and new powers were given to a great magistrate, called the Justiciary; in whose jurisdiction the people possessed a more efficacious preservative against oppression, than any which had hitherto been established in the freest states. After the year 1348, this high officer could not be removed according to the royal pleasure; and he was amenable for his conduct only to the Cortes, or to a court of inquiry of which they had the nomination. The Cortes of Aragon were not inferior to those of Castile, in that continual vigilance and jealousy of the sovereign, without which public liberty can never be long preserved against the encroachments of royal power.

The history of Germany, to the diet of Worms in 1495, is succinctly exhibited in the fifth chapter of this instructive publication; and here the author discovers, as in other parts of his performance, an unwearied spirit of research, and an unbiassed regard for truth. He never endeavours to recommend historical facts by any embellishments of the imagination.

In Chapter VI. Mr. Hallam gives an animated View of the Rise of Mohammedism, a distinct outline of the Saracenic History, and a brief sketch of the state of the Greek empire up to the capture of Constantinople in 1453. While tracing the progress of Mohammedism to some of its leading causes, several of the opinions which Mr. H. expresses are not in unison with those of his predecessors in this field of inquiry, but are, perhaps, more consistent with reason and with truth. Among the circumstances which lent a powerful impulse to the diffusion of the Mohammedan faith, he reckons,

> 'In the first place, those just and elevated notions of the Divine nature, and of moral duties, the gold ore that pervades the dross of the Koran, which were calculated to strike a serious and reflecting people, already perhaps disinclined, by intermixture with their Jewish and Christian fellow-citizens, to the superstitions of ancient idolatry; next the artful incorporation of tenets, usages, and traditions from the various religions that existed in Arabia; and thirdly, the extensive application of the precepts in the Koran, a book confessedly written with much elegance and purity, to all legal transactions and all the business of life. It may be expected that I should add to these, what is commonly considered as a distinguishing mark of Mohammedanism, its indulgence to voluptuousness. But this appears to be greatly exaggerated. Although the character of its founder may have been tainted by sensuality as well as ferociousness, I do not think that he relied upon inducements of the former kind for the diffusion of his system. We are not to judge of this by rules of Christian purity, or of European practice. If polygamy was a prevailing usage in Arabia, as is not questioned, its permission gave no additional license to the proselytes of Mohammed, who will be found rather to have narrowed the unbounded liberty of Oriental manners in this respect; while his decided condemnation of adultery and of incestuous connections, so frequent among barbarous nations, does not argue a very lax and accommodating morality. A devout Mussulman exhibits much more of the stoical, than the epicurean character. Nor can any one read the Koran without being sensible that it breathes an austere and scrupulous spirit. And, in fact, the founder of a new religion or sect is little likely to obtain permanent success by indulging the vices and luxuries of mankind. I should rather be disposed to reckon the severity of Mohammed's discipline among the causes of its influence.' (P. 507.)

[*To be continued.*]

Art. II. *Travels through France and Spain to Morocco.* By Colonel Maurice Keatinge. Comprising a Narrative of the Author's Residence in that Empire. With an Account of the British Embassy to the Court of Morocco under the late George Payne, Esq. Consul-General. To which is added, a Second Journey through France in 1814. Embellished with numerous Plates, from Drawings by the Author. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Colburn. 1817.

Although this book of travels is comprized in a single cover, it consists of three parts, or volumes, separately paged, of which the first details a Journey through France and Spain in the beginning of the year 1785; the second relates a Residence and Travels in the Empire of Morocco, immediately consequent on this journey; and the third describes a Second Visit to France in 1814. The first and the third sections contain not much that is new and valuable: but the second comprizes a large portion of original observation and inquiry, made in a country very interesting, seldom visited, and little known.

We shall pass over the route through Calais, St. Omer's, Laon, Lyons, Nismes, and Montpelier; and we shall not even dwell on the visit to Montserrat, here illustrated with numerous engravings. Barcelona, Sierra Molina, Madrid, Segovia, La Mancha, and Cadiz better deserve the reader's notice, as having been less frequently described: but it is an antiquated state of these towns which is here put on record, not their present living features. As we have neither time nor space to bestow on every resting-place of the author, particularly under these circumstances, we shall merely copy a single anecdote of natural history, occurring at p. 109.:

> 'Mr. Dowling, who passed many years of his life in and about St. Ildefonso, in the course of adverting to the progress of his manufactory, had frequently been eye-witness to a very surprising occurrence here — deer swallowing live serpents. He describes the fact as follows: — The deer, after discovering, examines the serpent for some time; he then places both his fore feet successively on it, standing somewhat straddling, so as to keep the reptile distended to its utmost length. He has probably in the first instance secured the head. The deer then puts his mouth down to the middle of the snake, thereby taking it in; and then raising his head and neck to a horizontal level with his body, and protruding his chin so as to make his head align with his neck, he appears to suck the snake down double, moving the jaws for the purpose but not chewing; the head and tail of the reptile, writhing, being the last parts of it seen. This strange appetite and extraordinary process Mr. Dowling had seen numerous instances of. It brings to mind the "*Cervi pasti serpente medulla*" (a necromantical ingredient) *of the poet.*'

This fact deserves to be more carefully examined. If deer will destroy and devour all serpents indiscriminately, including the venomous tribes, this quadruped might advantageously be multiplied in new countries, such as Australasia, which are infested by serpents.

In March 1785, about the period of the vernal equinox, the author, having embarked at Cadiz, came within sight of Cape Cantin, whose latitude is in his opinion incorrectly given in the usual charts; and he cast anchor on the 24th off Mogodor; denouncing the inconvenient port-regulations. The town is described: the houses are dazzlingly whitewashed, and have flat roofs: the rooms are mostly long and narrow, having the proportions of a double cube: but they are well contrived for coolness. The Moorish natives are remarked for a personal beauty resembling the Grecian. Hospitality and profusion characterize the tables of the merchants: it was a saying of the Venetian consul, "Others may give their hundred dishes, but I give mine all of solid meat." The various inhabitants and their religious customs are next described: as also the fortifications, the shifting sand-hills in the neighbourhood, and the ceremonies usual on approaching the Emperor, who received at Mogodor the first visit of the embassy to which Colonel Keatinge was attached. An engraving illustrates the description in the text.

An itinerary follows, from Mogodor to Morocco, divided into six days' journeys. The first day includes Sidyma. The second day supplied no other convenient halt than an Arab camp. The third day brought Mount Atlas into view; and the author justly dilates on its importance as a source of waters, which might be guided all over the contiguous district. The fourth day includes the river Guadissawa, and the abandoned but venerable town of Soor Lawid. The fifth day's journal notices many red streams, which are dissected into little water-courses, and fertilize the region; together with some tombs of saints. The sixth day passes in a level country abounding with palms. All this itinerary presents scenery very new, and many curious facts of natural history and of human manners. We extract the approach to the city of Morocco.

'*Entry into the city of Morocco.*—The cavalcade was now formed in part, in a respectable rank, by the alcaids, and amounted to about some forty files; and as we approached the city our cavalry began to exercise their feats of horsemanship. Thus we proceeded on our march to the capital, which was concealed from view within the vast but open groves of lofty palm-trees which occupy the horizon, while their tops present a parallel level of verdure; bright in the mid-day sun. Above this line of foliage, so peculiarly characteristic of place and climate, and to triple height, rises the tower of the great mosque, insulated, of dingy red, and its spire with three golden balls transfixed, glistening in the blaze of day. The vast and snowy masses of Atlas seem here almost impending, upon the right; its base still however invisible, through the purple dusk of the atmosphere, the accumulated fleeces of the nebulous region or zone of the mountain forming, to the eye, the foundation of these aspiring peaks, brought forward in powerful relief of colour with the strong deep blue of the heavens above them, and the glare of a mid-day sun, and sky without a cloud. So extraordinary a combination, such extreme contrasts, do not exist elsewhere on the face of nature. With the notions the ancients had on the subject of mythology it was impossible that they should not have selected such a site for their gods. And nowhere on earth is a parallel to it. Such was the remoter scenery; that at hand afforded less pleasing observation. Our route was intercepted by lines of deep pits, (the ventilators of the city aqueducts *, round which no cautionary care is bestowed,) while the earth crumbled under our horses' feet, from the undermining of myriads of rats wherewith this plain is infested, being as it were one vast burrow of these animals, adduced here by the conveniency of supply of water.

'Proceeding onward, we crossed meadows of superlative beauty, and then came under the shade of the vast and open palm-forest which invests the city up to its very battlements. Just within the verge of the wood we found mounted, and halted there to receive us, the governor of the city at the head of a great body of horsemen, all in white clothing, designated as we were given to understand by the style and title of the Sultan's friends, (not the *principes juventutis* certainly,) and a corps of cavalry of about four hundred, under five standards, two red, two green, and one striped green and red. On our cavalcade joining them, the standards were faced about, and formed in our fronts. After due, and not very summary complimenting among the principal personages on each part, we proceeded; and were next met by a large group of musicians and dancers, dressed in red and white, in front of whom, borne on a man's shoulders, (too great an honour for those of a Jew,) was a young Moor, who being, on coming up in front of us, set upon his heels, by the exercise of them speedily announced the nature of his office, it being no other than that of *maître de ballet* to the court of Morocco. For on his signal and example, the group began a wild, and to our ideas extravagantly gesticulated dance, to the music of their hard drums, while, by way of interlude, the cavalry performed their complimentary evolutions of advancing against us at full speed, in

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'* See the ruins of ancient Carthage for a specimen of the care paid by antiquity to these social accommodations, and the coincidence of the principles of structure. The idea did not originate here.'

ranks of from ten to fifteen in front, hallooing, and firing their muskets pointed at our faces, and occasionally even discomposing the regularity of our march by the irruption of an unruly horse. For although it is not in this soldier's play intended to hurt, yet as all the elegance of the compliment consists in approaching as nearly as possible to actually so doing, and yet conveying to the person complimented the agreeable surprise of finding no bodily injury sustained, the calculation, with the most adroit, becomes so extremely nice, that the slightest error in it, on one side, may produce a very severely felt effect. This is indeed the representation of their mode of warfare, of which more remains to be said.

'Our advance was thus continued towards the city, notwithstanding all the complimentary obstructions and difficulties thrown in its way: it was wonderful, and a proof of consummate skill in this respect, that the *corps de musique* and *corps de ballet* in front escaped with whole bones, until we approached its walls. Here vast multitudes received us with loud huzzas (mark the *peripeteia* hereafter): they had been evidently prepared; and all the wall-tops and battlements, their ordinary occupants the storks evicted, were covered and filled with crowds of women, muffled however up to the eyes, to view our arrival. This triumphant entry rejoiced the heart of our friend the worthy alcaid Judar (of the Sultan's artillery), who took the command of the escort in the absence of Saadi Tor Finiss, the latter not afterwards joining us; a circumstance which has confirmed speculations already plausible. Judar had never ceased, during the ride of this day, to expatiate with satisfaction on the honours conferred upon us, as here recited, taking care no part of them should escape notice, and observing to us (what we certainly could not otherwise have known) that the Sultan had sent out some of his nearest relations to bid us welcome. All which he had, he said, from a foreknowledge that it would be so, given us to believe. We had no reason ever to doubt this worthy man's sincerity.

'Exhausted by heat, deafened with noise, and nearly stifled by crowd and dust, we entered the venerable gate of the city, and within the precincts of its lofty, dingy, and mouldering walls: proceeding through new crowds, between dead walls, over heaps of dilapidating ruins and suffocating dunghills, we at an unexpected turn, and by instant transition, found ourselves at once in a delightful garden, secluded, silent, shaded, verdant, and cool; and at full liberty to take our repose.'

Peculiarities of an ornithological, botanical, and geological nature are frequently introduced by the author: but he had not acquired the technical scientific names of the animals, plants, and fossils which successively attracted his attention; and hence it is not always easy to identify the bird, the vegetable, or the mineral to which his picturesque delineations allude.

The following curious circumstance is related at p. 233.:

'The conveyance of the baggage to our quarters was consigned to the Jews. Strange transitions of life become the lots of some men. The person appointed to attend on the diplomatic mission of Britain is a native of Oxfordshire, and by Christian denomination Thomas Myers: but he is here a Mussulman, with the title and name of Alcaid Boazzer. His story, as given by himself, is, that he was shipwrecked here forty years ago, in the Inspector privateer, being then a boy, and like the rest of the crew turned to the Mussulman faith, in consequence of persecution, in various modes of ill-treatment, during the reign of the preceding Sultan. He seems older than this account should make him, but dates and years unrecorded soon become indistinct. He is married to a woman of the southern or Tafilet side of Mount Atlas, and has by her a large family. In consequence of this connection, probably, he is very communicative upon matters concerning the Brebers or mountaineers, of whom he, by his recurrence to the subject, appears to delight to talk. His complexion is fair, his beard long and white; he perfectly retains his *English*, and his appearance and whole manner are respectable and grave.'

The same chapter describes the ceremony of delivering credentials, the manner of living at Morocco, its shallow politics and peculiar modes of punishment, the charity of the Sultan, the mode of warfare, and the trade. The population is stated to be numerous, handsome, free from rags and famine, and living much at ease with little apparent labour. Particulars likely to be of use to future diplomatists are carefully noted. Of the Sultan a striking portrait is given. This monarch was usually seen on horseback, but kept a yellow English post-chaise, in which he was occasionally drawn by a single horse, with the blinds up. Traits of history, conveying shocking ideas of the inhumanity of many former princes, are here also recorded, and intermixed with a singular instance of civilized manners, or good breeding:

'Some of the etiquettes of his Majesty's court are rather whimsical; therefore, perhaps, the more necessary to be known. The negative particle *no*, in plain terms, must never be used. It must be put in some circuitous phraseology. *Black* is a term in the same uncourtly predicament. *Five* must be expressed four and one, which would appear to vulgar calculators to amount to much the same thing. A very ancient radical idea is, however, traceable here. An imprecation is supposed to be conveyed in it; and we perceive, though they know it not, here, the mystic, symbolical, and physical annexation of ideas of power and force to the hand, their emblem. The other prejudices are probably equally deeply seated. But as to the dreadful word *death*, it must neither be used nor alluded to. And if in conversation any subject is unfortunately started which might indirectly lead towards it, the turning the discourse in a delicate way, and relieving the company from it embarrassment, is considered the very summit of good breedin and refinement; and the *tact* of the person who has thus had th discretion to turn away the bolt, is the theme of expatiation. Thi brings to mind the courtly divine of our own country, who kne the rules of good breeding too perfectly to introduce the word *he* before a *polite* congregation.'

Beggars, serpent-jugglers, fights of animals, and other loca peculiarities, are depicted in a lively manner. The grea mosque and the tomb of a saint are engraved; also alcove in the sultan's garden; and the general architecture and topography of the city are stated. A particular quarter i assigned to the Jews, who live there in a degraded conditio Charitable establishments exist for lepers. The consequence of the harem-system of education are appreciated. The hospitality and the weddings of the Moors, their superstitions, an their soldiery, are passed in review: the Arabs are contrasted with them; and the paternal government of th Sheiks is praised. Some of their singular dishes, such a snails boiled with salt, are approved. A view of Moun Atlas, with the range of hills at its foot, the girdle of palm forests, and the battlements of the walls of Morocco, is a instructive engraving: but those of the Moorish cavalry les assist the imagination.

Next follows the route from the city of Morocco to Tangier. The colder and more elevated plains of Tafilet are described, with the river Tensift, and its bridge of 27 arches, and the singular mode of passing the Morbeya river. The soil and trees of the country, the mode of travelling with an escort, the management of the horse, the camel, and the dromedary, are specified. In winter, at Fez, says the author, p. 8., the ice is an inch thick; and, in this route, the traveller suffers more from cold than from any other inconvenience. — A valuable itinerary of the journey is given. On the second day, Morocco was no longer to be seen; the lofty steeple of the great mosque, towering over a bright streak of green along the horizon, formed by the heads of palm trees, being the last visible feature of the place. On the seventh day, the travellers reached Robat, a Carthaginian station, which stands on the south side of the stream; on whose opposite bank is placed Salee, corrupted from Shella, also a Carthaginian station. A view of this town and of the adjacent castle is given; both places are much declining with the system of piracy which at one time had enriched them: but fine pasturages adorn the banks of the stream. Marmora is noticed; and Al Kasr, where Don Sebastian fell. On the thirteenth day, Tangier was reached in the evening. Its trade is said to have been greatest during the siege of Gibraltar. Col. K. thus sums up his general idea of the country:

'In reviewing the tract of the earth recently passed over, it is obvious that its constitution, however diversified, is entirely alluvial. The country eastward from Mogodor to Morocco is evidently a substratum; *one, at least,* having been washed away, as appears by the proof patches heretofore described as now extant, to declare to the fact. The whole tract is covered with reduced dilapidation, either horn-stone, trapp, or basalt. This part of the Great Plain from the Atlantic to the sea has a rapid descent, as is ascertained by the directness of the courses of the rivers, as well as their rapidity. North of the stony part to Bulaghuan, the argillaceous tract has its undulated form by the wash of waters, and is diversified so into valleys: but the elevations all present one level. This tract of soil is proved by the banks of the rivers, or rather by the valleys through which they run, to be of great depth; and the inclination of the plain which it forms, dips considerably westward. Such is the case northward to the latitude of Salee. A considerable deviation from this degree of inclination is perceived further to the north; and this is demonstrable by the waters, the rivers winding in more numerous and bolder sweeps, and the element extending into lakes over the plane. This takes place more particularly towards the coast, where the impulse of the ocean has formed an embankment to cause this return of the water. The counteracting level, or inclination, has thus constituted, what some would be rather surprized to find here, a humid tract. From every appearance, then, the country in the latitude of Fez westward to the coast, judging by the meandering of the rivers much more than by the eye, is nearly a water-level to the foot of Mount Atlas, one of whose limbs is protruded to the Straits, while his main body follows nearly the outline of the coast of the Mediterranean, to his utmost termination at the falls of the Nile. The western shore of this tract is in its northern part, as for instance at Salee, bold. This is the tract of second inclination already described. Southward, the most inclined of the three plains has its shore consistently merging easily into the level of the ocean: hence the tower of Mogodor is the chief conspicuous object on the coast. There is a great in-set of the ocean on all this western coast, as has been too fatally known to many. This is the return of the waters seeking their level from the operation of the trade-winds; and during all summer a systematic influx of atmosphere prevails from the north down this coast, to supply the deficiency of equilibrium caused by rarefaction at the equator. Such are the uniform laws whereon Nature acts. In consequence of the in-set of the ocean and prevalence of westerly winds during the winter season, with the tremendous surf thereby caused, the harbours here are barred, and of course subjected to one very serious inconvenience. El Valadia would, however, be an *exception to this.*

'Policy and commerce cry aloud, and both nature and art should be moved, to accomplish the opening the inhospitable coast of this redundant country. But to none does the appeal so forcibly address itself as to the nation which leads in commercial enterprize. Africa, indeed, seems now the only part of the globe perfectly free for the introduction of adventure and speculation, and it is likely to continue so fully long enough to reward the trouble and risk. The attempts, however, if any take place in this direction, must be made upon a scale very different in every respect from aught hitherto done in that way.

'But to revert to the main and conclusive article — Geology. It is to be observed, that no trace of volcanic operation appears. In the outlines of Atlas himself there is nothing that indicates the existence in any former day of a *crater*. This is by no means conclusive; but it is strongly presumptive: at any rate it renders investigation the more interesting. Atlas in his personification, we know, is a great king as well as a giant. As a neighbour, he was of course considered as being well acquainted with the domestic concerns of the heavenly host. He for a long period possessed a powerful interest in the minds of men below: however, in latter ages he has fallen, it seems, into neglect. But until the great globe itself, and all that it inherit, shall dissolve, there remains a probability that he may yet excite that degree of attention from science and investigation, which he is so well capable of rewarding.'

We entirely agree with the author that a well-conducted journey to the ruins of Carthage, and to the foot of Mount Atlas, would abound with objects worthy of a liberal curiosity, with classical antiquities, and with unrecorded facts of natural history. In the time of the Carthaginians, this district was covered with cultivation, expensively irrigated, thickly peopled, widely commercial, highly civilized, and furnished to Spain certainly, and perhaps to Britany and Cornwall, their primæval settlers and the rudiments of civilization. If, when we lately bombarded Algiers, the British government had proceeded on a system of permanent conquest, and had landed troops to occupy the interior and to protect that quiet possession of property without which the arts of civilization must every where go backwards, this beautiful region, on which nature has bestowed all her zones in a narrow girdle, might again have been animated with the activity of commerce and the intelligence of literature: nothing is wanting but undisputed annexation to a firm and just government. — From Tangier, Col. K. sailed to Tariffa, and thus landed once more in Europe.

We shall content ourselves with a cursory sketch of the rest of the route. Cadiz, the river Guadalquivir, the grand amphitheatre at Santi Ponce, and Seville, are visited; then Xeres and Merida, where we may still behold a Roman amphitheatre, convertible into an arena for gladiators or a basin for a *naumachia*, with other antiquities, temples, and aqueducts. The author comments also on Spanish painters, and the convent of San Juan de Dios; characterizes Badajos on the Guadiana; and discourses much about Spanish agriculture. — To Portugal he travels next, and at p. 109. expresses his dissent from Mr. Southey's too candid appreciation of the Marquis Pombal. In a long and curious disquisition, supported by many vouchers, he enters at great length into the inquiry concerning the innocence of the Tavora family, and pronounces them guiltless. The entire passage well deserves the notice and deliberate consideration of the future historian: but, as it is greatly too extensive for our insertion, we must content ourselves with referring to this weighty and meritorious critical investigation.

Section III. shifts the date of the scene to the year 1814. The author embarks for Calais, runs to Lyons as before, descends the Rhone in a boat, and then visits Montpellier. Lyons had declined since his former visit, and presented a deserted and wretched aspect. On the agriculture of France, many important observations are given; and the corn-land, the sheep-walks, the vine-yards, and the olive-grounds are successively described. Narbonne, Salus, Perpignan, the Pyrenees, Toulouse, Bordeaux, and Paris, next are all attentively examined. At p. 196., the Colonel says that land of the first class sells in France at 80l. per English acre; land of the second or medium quality at 60l.; that it is almost all held by yeomanry, and is bought to be cultivated by the proprietor.

In the Appendix, occurs (p. 266.) a curious attestation of a miracle wrought in the year 1657; and also a tedious dissertation on a picture of our Lady of the Fish. — Thirty-four plates add much to the gratification of the volume.

Had we been at the author's elbow, previously to the impression of this work, we should have advised him wholly to suppress the first part, and to transplant into the third all the original matter which it contains. Thus would have been obtained a good modern tour from Cadiz to Calais. We should next have advised him to publish separately, and without the distraction of European information, the entire second part, comprehending all the travels and all the residence on the African shore. These two books would each have done him honour: but they are here so much dilated and diluted with obsolete, superfluous, and repeated information, that they do not, as works of literary art, rank so high as some books of travels which are less original in their contents.

tents. Perhaps, in a future edition, the Colonel will adopt some such plan, and will add to his truly valuable, instructive, and entertaining account of the empire of Morocco, a good map of the district, which would be more useful than several of the engravings here annexed. A revision of the composition is also necessary.

Art. III. *Researches on Pulmonary Phthisis*, from the French of G. L. Bayle, D. M. P. by William Barrow, M.D. Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 479. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is well known that our continental neighbours have always been more in the habit of examining dead bodies, for the purpose of detecting the morbid changes produced in them by disease, than ourselves. This difference has arisen chiefly, perhaps, from the greater facility with which dissection may be performed in France; where both the general character of the people, and their ideas on this particular point, lead them to feel less repugnance and disgust at that kind of violation of the dead which has, in all ages and countries, been more or less reprobated. Of the utility, or rather absolute necessity, of the frequent practice of morbid dissection, no one can doubt: the only question respects the choice of the subject, and the use which the writer makes of his means of improvement.

The industry of M. Bayle, in this respect, is indeed most exemplary, and almost exceeds any degree of which we could have formed a previous conception. In this volume, we have a detailed account of above 50 cases, most of which were examined after death; besides a great number of others that are mentioned, and which also appear to have been inspected by him. He arranges his materials with much apparent method, but perhaps with too much technical division; and he includes his observations under nine heads, which bear the following titles:

'1st. The essential character of Phthisis.

'2d. The alterations in the lung that characterize the diseases which have been confounded with Phthisis.

'3d. The peculiar lesions of the lung, and the symptoms to be observed in each of the species of Phthisis.

'4th. Some considerations relative to the whole of these species.

'5th. The state of the lung in the different periods of Phthisis.

'6th. The state of different organs in the bodies of phthisical subjects.

'7th. The complications of Phthisis with different diseases, the effect of these complications, and the errors to which they have given rise.

'8th. The general treatment of Phthisis.

'9th. Fifty-four histories of particular cases to illustrate the subject.'

In ascertaining the essential character of phthisis, the author remarks that it may be deduced either from its symptoms or from its seat and nature; the first constituting what may be called its *artificial*, and the second its *essential* character. In a pathological point of view, both these characters are necessary to be considered: it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to establish an artificial character which may apply to all the varieties and all the stages of the disease; and the essential character can only be known with certainty after the death of the patient. M. Bayle gives the ensuing definitions, the first of the essential, the second of the artificial character; which, taken together, may constitute a sufficiently correct diagnosis. 'Every injury of the lungs, which, left to itself, produces a progressive disorganization of them, and in the end ulceration and death.'—'Cough, difficulty of breathing, marasmus, hectic fever, and sometimes purulent expectoration.' We shall be disposed, however, to criticize both these definitions: the first we do not deem sufficiently characteristic, in as much as it does not discriminate between an affection orginating in or depending on a constitutional cause, and one proceeding from a source that is accidental or obviously extraneous. As to the second, we think that it is likewise too indeterminate; for, as the definition implies (or rather states) that purulent expectoration is not always present, so it follows that consumption may exist without any symptoms, except the first four; cough, difficulty of breathing, marasmus, and hectic, when neither pain nor expectoration occurs.

After these remarks on the definition and essential character of phthisis, we have some observations on the affections that most nearly resemble it; as pulmonary chronic catarrh, a disease which in many of its essential features is similar to phthisis, but which is said merely to affect the mucous membrane of the lungs, and does not destroy their substance. Chronic peripneumony and chronic pleurisy are also said to be often confounded with genuine or proper phthisis, although sufficiently obvious marks of distinction prevail between them. With respect to the diseases which are to be strictly regarded as phthisis, the author conceives that they may be arranged under six species or varieties; two or more of which may co-exist, but all of which may be found in a distinct form. Their names are: '1. Tubercular Phthisis. 2. Granular Phthisis. 3. Phthisis with Melanosis. 4. Phthisis from Ulceration. 5. Phthisis from Calculi. 6. Phthisis from Cancer.' Each of these kinds is then particularly described;

scribed; first the actual state of the parts and the circumstances which constitute the disease, and then its symptoms. The descriptions are minute, and perhaps rather too much lengthened, but they are not without interest. Any one of them separately being too long for quotation, we shall be obliged to take some extracts only as a specimen for our readers, and shall transcribe a part of what is said respecting the first, or tubercular species. This is pronounced to be the most common, as well as the most simple.

'The lungs then present tubercles either encysted or not encysted. These tubercles are formed by a homogeneous substance, always opake, of a white or dirty white colour, at one time yellowish, at another greyish. Some are only contiguous to the pulmonary tissue, and enveloped in a very distinct membrane; others do not present any cyst, and adhere to the parenchyme of the lungs by continuity of substance: these last are ordinarily marked with certain black lines. Both one and the other are penetrated by capillary blood vessels. The tubercles vary in size from a millet seed to that of a chesnut. Miliary tubercles are commonly excessively numerous. As to the others, they are so much the fewer the larger they are, and sometimes two or three only are to be found. Nevertheless, in many phthisical persons there occurs a great number of tubercles of all sizes, some encysted, others not. The exterior of encysted tubercles is commonly membranous, but in some cases it is of a cartilaginous and even of a bony structure.'

M. Bayle then proceeds to a more minute account of the different appearances which tubercles assume, and the several stages of their progress, until they reach the condition in which they degenerate into open abscess, and completely destroy the texture of the lungs. The description of the symptoms of tubercular phthisis does not present any thing remarkable either in accuracy or in novelty; it is merely an account of the common pulmonary consumption of the systematic writers. Our readers may be more interested in the author's statement of the condition of the lungs which constitutes his second species, or 'granular phthisis.'

'This species is very common, though there is no mention made of it in authors. The lungs are stuffed with miliary granulations, transparent, shining, sometimes speckled with black and bright lines or points. These granulations appear of a cartilaginous nature and consistence; their size varies from that of a millet seed to that of a grain of wheat; they are never opake, and they do not dissolve. These different characters perfectly distinguish them from miliary tubercles, which are of the same size, but which are always grey or white and opake, and in the end totally dissolve. The miliary granulations occasion at length ulcerations of the parenchyme of the lungs; and, in this case, there is always an evident albuminous membraniform stratum which lines the ulcer, and even often a distinct membrane which lines the walls of the ulceration, and which secretes the pus.'

We shall also quote the description of 'phthisis with melanosis,' which M. Bayle says is not very uncommon, and which 'authors have often perceived without making it known in a distinct manner.'

'It affects only adults, and, above all, persons advanced in years. Those whom it kills have ulcers in the lungs of various sizes, as black as coal, and very hard, sometimes a few lines thick, at other times a few inches. The parts remote from the ulceration are commonly very sound. But if the disease affects an entire lung, it is hard, compact, black as ebony or charcoal; and sometimes like half-burnt leather, as authors have related who have published observations that may be applied to this species.'

The remaining species are admitted to be very rare, and, probably, if they are to be distinguished by an exact specific character, must be referred to extraneous and accidental causes, rather than to any peculiar modification of the circumstances which usually generate phthisis.

As the principal point, in which M. Bayle's view of phthisis differs from those of his contemporaries, consists in the varieties into which he conceives it to be divided, it is an interesting inquiry how far he has been successful in establishing these distinctions; whether he has been able to point out sufficiently characteristic circumstances, by which they may be known from each other; whether, if they be distinguishable, the difference depends only on some accidental circumstance; or whether they are merely degrees of the same affection, which, although presenting an appreciable difference in extreme cases, yet slide into each by imperceptible shades. To decide absolutely on this question would carry us into a long and intricate discussion, and would involve an attempt in which we should very probably prove unsuccessful: but we may give it as the impression, which is produced on our minds by the perusal of the work, that M. Bayle, with all his research, has not been very fortunate in the formation of his classes. The tubercular and the granular we apprehend to be absolutely the same disease; and we suspect that the third species owes its peculiar symptoms to an accidental circumstance, not forming an essential part of the affection. We are even inclined to carry our criticism a little farther, and to say that, while the author has formed classes which do not exist, he has neglected some distinctions which appear well founded; more particularly that which would divide the tubercular and mucous or catarrhal;

but on the subject of classification we have said enough; and we must pass on to an interesting chapter, on the statistics of consumption. Here we meet with many curious and important documents. We have an account of the comparative number of the different species, taken from an aggregate of *nine hundred* cases; with the proportion of consumptive patients to those that died from other diseases in two of the wards in the hospital *de la Charité*, the whole number of deaths being 696, a mortality that occurred in the space of only three years. The number of phthisical patients was 244. — The next page contains a table of the frequency of consumption at different ages, the number of patients being rated that died in each successive year from 15 to 70. The comparative frequency of consumption in different parts of the year is then given; first for every month, and then for the four different seasons; and the result is not exactly that which might have been expected. Out of a total of 244, 64 died in the autumn, 58 in winter, 54 in the spring, and 68 in the summer. The next table gives an account of the duration of the disease, which seems to be from 25 days to 40 years; the most frequent periods are 6, 7, 8, and 9 months: — it appears that the disease seldom terminates in less than two months, or continues longer than two years.

We have occupied so much space with this preliminary matter, that we must very hastily pass over the more essential parts of the work: but this is the less to be regretted, because our object is to give our readers an idea only of the manner in which it is executed, and which, we conceive, is such that they will be induced to consult it for themselves. — The topics that next pass under review are the state of the lungs in the different periods of pulmonary phthisis; which periods are reduced to four, under the titles of occult, incipient, confirmed, and terminating. The succeeding chapter contains an account of the state of the different parts of the body in those who die of phthisis of the lungs; then the complication of phthisis with other diseases, and afterward the treatment. In considering this subject, the author first inquires into the treatment according to its distinction into six species, to each of which a separate section is assigned; and he then gives directions for treating phthisis when complicated with other diseases: those which he enumerates, as most frequently requiring particular attention, being '1. Acute Eruptive Diseases. 2. The Suppression of Cutaneous Diseases. 3. The Acute Pulmonary Catarrh. 4. The Chronic Pulmonary Catarrh. 5. The Hooping Cough and some other convulsive Affections. 6. Hæmoptysis. 7. Partial

Inflammations of the Parenchyme of the Lungs surrounding the local alterations which cause the consumption. 8. Inflammation of the Pleura.' — In the third place, we have the treatment of particular symptoms, of which ten are enumerated; '1st, Fever; 2d, Cough; 3d, Want of Sleep; 4th, Spitting of Blood; 5th, Pains in the Chest; 6th, Night-Sweats; 7th, Vomitings; 8th, Aphthæ; 9th, Diarrhœa; 10th, Oedema.' The fourth and last section of this chapter is intitled, 'determination of the circumstances that decide in each particular case, which of the means proposed against phthisis are those that it is proper to employ; appreciation of the principal means.' Of the general complexion of this part, which is perhaps altogether the most defective in the whole work, the following paragraph may be taken as a specimen:

> 'In chronic pulmonary catarrhs, which resemble Phthisis, and in those which are complicated with it, when there is not too much quickness in the pulse, we obtain good effects from resins and balsamics. It is in cases like these that we derive benefit from tar-water, the buds of pine and fir, St. John's wort, ground ivy, the balms, resins, gum-resins, the balsamic pills of Morton, the balsam of Locatelli, &c. Nevertheless, if the original disease is tubercular phthisis, we cannot long continue these remedies, except when the lungs contain very few tubercles.'

We now come to the ninth chapter, which contains the histories of cases, with the appearances after death: it occupies nearly three-fourths of the volume, and must have been the result of more persevering labour than perhaps any contemporary physician has bestowed on any one subject of morbid anatomy. It presents an ample detail of the state of the different organs in each case, with the conclusions, both pathological and practical, that may be deduced from the facts. The whole is recorded with minuteness, and apparently with accuracy; at least we perceive no circumstance which would induce us to accuse the author of a deficiency in this respect: but we may regret the absence of any synoptical view of the facts developed by M. Bayle, which would have materially contributed to the practical value of his labours.

With respect to the translation, as far as we can form an opinion without having seen the original, it appears to be performed with sufficient correctness: but it is not wholly free from inaccuracies or inelegancies of style and foreign idioms.

Art. IV. *Surgical Observations;* being a Quarterly Report of Cases in Surgery. By Charles Bell. Parts I. and II. 8vo. 6s. each. Longman and Co.

Mr. Charles Bell, who is well known to the public as an assiduous cultivator of his art, has stated in his preface the specific object of the work before us. He observes that 'published cases contain only what is new and monstrous, and but few examples which may serve to initiate the young surgeon into the business of his profession.' To supply this defect, or rather to produce what may be more extensively applicable to practice, he proposes to publish, from time to time, the observations that are made in the hospital and the school of anatomy to which he is attached; by which means he will be able to give an account of cases as they actually occur, the more common as well as the more remarkable; adding that the accuracy of his statements will be insured, from the circumstance that every fact is open to inspection, and that any mistake would be easily detected and exposed.

The observations are arranged in the form of reports on different diseases; each report being confined to a single affection, or to such as have a very close connection with each other. The reports contained in the first two numbers are six, and embrace the following topics: '1. On Cancer; 2. Containing Cases of Diseases and Wounds of the Larynx, and of the Operation of Laryngotomy; 3. Being Cases of diseased Pharynx and Œsophagus; 4. Containing Cases of Fistula in Perineo; 5. On Fractures of the Bones of the Trunk, being Cases of Fracture and Dislocation of the Spine, and Injury of the Spinal Marrow. Cases of Fracture of the Ribs, attended with Emphysema, or with Caries; 6. Containing Cases of Femoral Hernia.' The subjects are certainly well selected; they are not too remote from the common course of practice; and yet they are such as afford sufficient room for new remarks, and for inquiry into the best methods of proceeding, or into the propriety of the plans which are generally pursued.

With regard to the first article, on Cancer, the principal view is to investigate the probable advantages of a remedy which has been lately recommended from respectable authority, viz. *compression.* The information is conveyed in the form of a string of propositions, which compose the report of the medical committee of the Middlesex Hospital, where the remedy has had a very full trial. As we might anticipate, however, the conclusion of the committee is decidedly unfavourable; no approach to a cure of the specific nature of cancer appears to have been attained; and it seems doubtful whether the symptoms were not even aggravated. The method of employing the remedy is this:

> 'The essential part of this new plan of cure is the compression of the cancerous tumor, gently at first, and with a force gradually increased, till at last it is augmented to a very great degree: and that the means are these — if the cancer be open, the various holes and cavities are filled up from the bottom with chalk, finely levigated, and all the surface is thickly covered with hair powder; over this, long plaster straps are put, so as to cover the whole surface of the tumor, over this again are placed linen compresses, bound down with the turns of a roller, firmly applied, and of six yards in length; or over the first straps are laid a second set, bracing the parts more firmly than the first, over this a plate of lead, and lastly, the long roller is carried round the chest, compressing the whole.'

Although this kind of forcible compression is so little advantageous, or may even be injurious, Mr. Bell thinks that a certain degree of it may be both necessary and useful; and he reminds his pupils 'that rest and support are necessary to the cure of surgical diseases:' but he observes with respect to the new practice, that 'specific action is not subdued by pressure, and therefore this method cannot be a cure for cancer. Nor is it desirable that the absorption of the matter of cancer should take place. Pressure accelerates the coming on of the last fatal symptoms in scirrhus of the breast. Pressure brings the diseased mamma earlier into contact with the muscles and ribs, and thereby accelerates the fatal affection of the chest.' Lastly, it is stated that 'the idea is not new,' but that we are indebted for it to Mr. John Bell, the author's brother; a point which is scarcely worth an argument, if the practice be of so little value as it is here represented to possess.

Report II., on Affections of the Larynx, contains much interesting matter; more particularly respecting the necessity for the occasional performance of the operation of laryngotomy, and the best method of accomplishing it. We cannot enter into all the details of the cases, but shall abstract some of the author's general conclusions. We are assured that this operation is not in reality so formidable as it is generally supposed to be:

> 'For the most part it requires only a small scalpel to cut into the membraneous space betwixt the thyroid and cyrcoid cartilages. And having slit up the membrane, substituting the handle for the point of the knife, and turning it round so as to open the slit, immediately the patient breathes freely. There is here nothing to alarm the most timid operator. No great turgid veins are *opened; he is above the* thyroid gland, and above the anas-

tomosing branch of the thyroid arteries. The part is strongly marked by the prominence of the thyroid cartilage above, and the ring of the cyrcoid cartilage below.' —

'That the operation ought to be performed betwixt the cartilages in cases of threatened suffocation from husk of fruit, cherry stones, and the like, drawn into the glottis, is obvious both because it gives immediate freedom to the respiration, and because it permits us to extract the body, or to push it up into the mouth.

'Whatever other part of the throat we cut upon, much blood must flow. If we cut through the cyrcoid cartilage, we come upon a branch of the thyroid artery, and perhaps the superior lobe of the thyroid gland; a very little lower we cut upon the isthmus of the thyroid gland, which pours out blood like an artery, but cannot be secured by a ligature like an artery.

'If we cut on the fore part of the trachea further down than the thyroid gland, we are confined in a narrow space. The trachea is deep, and the thyroid veins as they descend are found so turgid, owing to the difficult respiration, that they bleed very freely. The bleeding makes the operation bustling instead of being done quietly; and there is considerable danger in opening the trachea while the bleeding continues, lest it fall into the trachea, and with the accumulated mucus suffocate the patient.'

Though, however, the operation may be divested of a large portion of the terrors which are usually attached to it, still it is not a mode of treatment to which we must have recourse without due regard to its probable consequences. When the disease in the larynx is of a temporary nature, and when it is only to be dreaded as producing immediate suffocation, from a cause that we may hope will be afterward removed, the operation is the obvious and direct method of saving life: but, if the impediment to the respiration depends on some irremediable mischief, which must necessarily destroy the patient at no distant period, it becomes a serious question how far we ought to procure a short and painful addition to life at such an expence.

The fifth report, on Affections of the Spine and the Parts contiguous to it, contains many valuable and some novel remarks. We have first a detail of cases of injury to the spine which proved fatal, and one of unexpected recovery. The injuries generally consisted in fractures, but one of them was found on dissection to be a 'loosening of the last cervical from the first dorsal vertebra.' The following farther account is given of this case:

'A few of the dorsal and cervical vertebræ were removed, and then it was distinctly seen that there was a considerable space between the last cervical and first dorsal vertebra, the intervertebral substance was completely destroyed, and an immense quantity of pus surrounded them. On the back part the pus had extended under the scapulæ, and on the fore-part was bounded by the œsophagus. On examining the spinal canal, the pus was found to have dropped down through the whole length of the sheath to the cauda equina.'

Mr. Bell observes concerning this case;

'Authors considering the strength of the intervertebral substance have said, that the dislocation of the bodies of the vertebræ from each other was impossible. It is true, that commonly the body of the vertebra gives way before the ligaments yield. But here is an instance of diastasis or subluxation of the bodies of two of the vertebræ. From Hippocrates to the multitude of French authors who have touched upon this subject, dislocation has been considered in no other light formidable, than as producing pressure on the spinal marrow. But this case serves well to shew, that luxation will prove fatal, even although the spinal marrow be not bruised.'

Respecting the effects of these accidents, and the method of managing them, we are informed that 'in injuries of the spine the danger to be apprehended is the same with that which accompanies injury to the brain; viz. the rising of inflammation, and the suppuration within the theca. This indicates the necessity of repeated general bleeding, or constant local bleeding while the danger continues. We also see the necessity of controlling the motions of the patient, whether at first as in the state of inebriety, or afterwards when delirious.'

This analogy between the affections of the skull and those of the spine leads the author to consider how far 'the analogy holds in fracture and depression of the skull, and fracture of the spine with crushing of the spinal marrow;' and, as a consequence of this opinion, how far we are to attempt to remove the compression by attempting to elevate the spine? This doctrine is generally maintained as a self-evident proposition: but Mr. Bell apprehends that the analogy is not perfect; that to remove a portion of the circle of the bone would be certainly fatal; and that, even were this not to be the case, no benefit would be gained, as the spinal marrow is generally injured through its whole diameter. It is farther urged as an objection to any operation of this kind, that probably the effect produced on the spine is not so much the pressure of the bone, as a thickening of the membrane which presses on the nervous matter.

These extracts and remarks will be sufficient to give our readers an idea of the value and importance of Mr. Bell's observations. We are disposed to think very favourably of them; and, notwithstanding considerable defects of style, and a peculiarity of manner which is sometimes displeasing, we have perused them with interest and improvement.

Art. V. *Dr.* Clarke's *Travels in various Countries, Vols. III. and IV.*

[*Article continued from Vol.* lxxxvi. *p.* 433.]

We reported in our last Number the Travels of Dr. Clarke as far as the northern frontier of Greece; and, in resuming our task, we must express the satisfaction which we derive from learning the uninjured state of a large proportion of the relics of antient art. Amid all the disadvantages of subjection to the Turks, it is some consolation that these ignorant invaders have never been infected with the rage of destroying, or even altering, the monuments of antiquity. Age after age has passed away without their having meddled with the buildings, the statues, the columns, or the sepulchres which were daily exposed to their view; so that the field of research has remained untouched, until a time at which it is likely to be occupied by men of real science. This forbearance on the part of the Turks affords a singular contrast to the ravages of the Crusaders of the twelfth century; a full account of which is given in Dr. C.'s Appendix, vol. iv. p. 707., in the translation of a fragment of Nicetas. Statues, paintings, and even buildings were assailed by the indiscriminate zeal of these rude asserters of Christianity; who conceived that there was no possibility of salvation beyond the pale of the church of Rome. We must not, however, ascribe the preservation of the precious relics of antiquity to any commendable motives on the part of the Turks; they are perfectly passive in such matters, and allow the buildings, the streets, and the roads of Greece to stand exactly as they found them, without the most distant idea of alteration or improvement.

Dr. C. has frequently occasion to quote Belon, the Frenchman who traversed a part of Greece 170 years ago, as well as our countryman, Wheeler, whose journey was not quite thirty years later; and he finds a remarkable coincidence between their observations and his own. This was curiously exemplified in a variety of places; among others at Cavallo, the antient Neapolis, a town of Thrace, where Dr. Clarke found from his Journal that he had travelled from Orphano to Pravista in six hours, and in three hours more to Cavallo: a time exactly corresponding to that which was taken for the same purpose by Paul Lucas a century before. Again, on riding next day out of Cavallo, he remarked a *Soros* close to a very antient wall, with a Latin inscription, which remains exactly as it was copied by Belon.

Macedon. — The population of Macedon is computed at 700,000 individuals, and that of the rest of Greece at 1,300,000, *making a total* of 2,000,000, which is probably rather below than above the mark. The name of Μακεδονια is still in use among the inhabitants of that country, but in a limited sense, being applied by them to the district around and adjacent to the ruins of Pydna. The classic inquirer, however, finds himself much embarrassed in tracing the position of antient cities in this part of Greece; having now no longer the aid of Pausanias, and only partially that of Strabo.

‘Where are the cities of Lychnidus, and Ægæ, called also Melobotira, and more antiently Ædessa, the regal seat of the Macedonian kings? We entered Macedonia in the hope that, of all its antient cities, this at least would not escape our researches; for in Ægæ were preserved the sepulchres of Alexander's predecessors: and a superstition existed concerning the burial of the kings of Macedon, similar to that which is so well known in Italy with regard to the Popes; that their dominion would cease when the bodies of the sovereigns were no longer buried in the same cemetery. The discovery therefore of the ruins of Ægæ would be particularly gratifying; because, in the examination of the regal tombs of the Macedonians, we should for the first time be made acquainted with their manner of burial, and able to ascertain whether the Grecian Soros was of Macedonian or of Ægyptian origin:—but as all our inquiries respecting Ægæ * were made to no purpose, we are unable to illustrate that very curious part of the history of the Macedonians which relates to their mode of sepulture. Every inquiry concerning this people is becoming revived, with a redoubled interest in the knowledge we have that they were of the same race with the nation now called Albanians; and that the latter have preserved the manners, customs, and language of the Macedonians, almost unaltered, from the earliest ages.’

‘* Since this was written, the author, upon his return to England, circulated, in manuscript, a regular set of queries, as hints to travellers respecting their researches in the Levant. One of these queries related to Edessa, and to the sepulchres of the Macedonian kings. He has, in consequence, recently been permitted to make the following extract from a manuscript letter of his friend Mr. Fiott, of St. John's College, Cambridge, to his fellow-collegian, Mr. Hughes; whereby it appears, that Mr. Fiott has succeeded in discovering the spot, and actually went himself into one of those sepulchres. “If a firmān could be procured from Ali Pasha of Joannina, I am confident,” says Mr. Fiott, “that there would be found at Edessa treasures of antiquities. The place is now called Vodina: it is a delightful spot. There are sepulchres cut in the rock, which the superstitious inhabitants have never plundered; because they are afraid to go near them. I went into two, and saw the bodies in perfect repose, with some kinds of ornaments, and clothes, and vases; but touched them not, and paid little attention to them; being at that time a novice in the sexton trade, and ignorant that a traveller could gain celebrity and honour *by robbing the bodies* of the dead. There is a *beautiful inscription in the town*. The fall of waters is magnificent.”’

Olympus and Pydna. — The lofty summits of Olympus remain in sight during several days of a traveller's peregrinations in the north of Greece, and are particularly striking when viewed from Katarina, a village at its base on the side towards the sea. Proceeding from this place to the eastward, Dr. C. found occasionally some fragments of sculpture and architecture, but was frequently reminded of the contrast between this neglected region and the more cultivated parts of Greece.

'The roads were deep, and full of mud, rendering our journey tedious and disagreeable: we were however amply repaid for all our fatigue, whenever we looked back towards Katarīna; for then we beheld Olympus, not only in undiminished glory, but seeming of greater magnitude than ever, being without a cloud to obscure any part either of its summit or sides; all its vast masses and deep chasms being displayed, so that the eye might range from its broad base upwards to its craggy tops, now radiant with bright and shining light, reflected from accumulated snows, and contrasted with the dark shadows of its awful bosom; beneath which, most beautifully picturesque, appeared the woods of Katarīna, with the dome and minarets of the town conspicuous among the trees. At about half an hour's distance from this chapel, ascending a hill, we had another noble prospect, but in an opposite direction: it commanded the whole of the Thermæan gulph; Mount Athos appearing plainly to the east: also upon the opposite side of the gulph we saw distinctly the white walls and buildings of Salonica. Far beyond a range of hills situate at the back of the city, and towards the north, we saw a very elevated snow-clad mountain; and upon inquiring its name, were told that it is called Maleshivo. This can be no other than the Scomius of Thucydides. — From this spot we also surveyed the whole of the plain surrounding the extremity of the Gulph of Therma. In this plain, upon the right hand, standing towards the sea, is an immense tumulus, making a conspicuous and remarkable appearance, as the only principal object: it is now called ΤΥΜΒΟΣ by the Greek peasants. Thence we came to the village of Kitros, or Kitro, distant three hours from Katarīna. Before we reached the village, we saw, upon our left, the ruins of a chapel; marking, perhaps, the site of an antient temple. Here we dined upon olives, onions, and biscuit, with very good wine, which we bought in the place. Kitros is indisputably the Macedonian Kydna, a name antiently corrupted into the more memorable appellation of Pydna. —

'It was in the plain before Pydna that the great battle was fought between the Macedonians and the Romans, when the former, by their signal defeat, forfeited for ever their freedom, and Macedonia became a Roman province. The conspicuous tomb before mentioned decidedly marks the spot; and its immense magnitude is explained by the event of that battle, when twenty-five thousand of the Macedonian army were left dead upon the field.'

Mount Athos is currently known among the country-people by the name of Ayonoros, a corruption of Ἅγιον ὄρος, (the

Holy Mountain,) though its summit still bears the name of Athona. Twenty monasteries, great and small, are scattered along its lofty ridges, and look like so many fortresses in the midst of sublime solitudes. Their revenue is derived partly from hereditary land, and partly from the alms given throughout Greece to the itinerant brethren, who are computed at nearly two thousand, or a third of the whole association. The monasteries pay each a small tribute to the Turkish government, but have still enough left to indulge in a less abstemious life than that which is prescribed by their ostensible rules. In point of ignorance, they are not inferior to their brethren the *Caloyers* of Parnassus; and it seems not altogether delusive to cherish the hope of finding even yet a few antient MSS. in their recesses, as their books and papers have never been thoroughly examined. The negative answers hitherto given to the inquiries of travellers may have proceeded from actual unacquaintance with the nature of their literary deposits; which are never arranged on shelves as in a regular library, but piled one on the other, covered with dust, and left unvisited for years.

Salonica. — Dr. C. passed only a few days at this important sea-port, the plague unluckily raging in a part of the town at the time of his arrival.

'The walls of Salonica give a very remarkable appearance to the town, and cause it to be seen from a great distance, being white-washed; and, what is still more extraordinary, they are also painted. They extend in a semicircular manner from the sea, inclosing the whole of the buildings within a peribolus, whose circuit is five or six miles; but a great part of the space within the walls is void. It is one of the few remaining cities that have preserved the form of its antient fortifications; the mural turrets yet standing, and the walls that support them being entire. — Like all the antient and modern cities of Greece, its wretched aspect within is forcibly contrasted with the beauty of the external appearance, rising in a theatrical form, upon the side of a hill surrounded with plantations of cyprus and other evergreen trees and shrubs. The houses are generally built of unburned bricks, and, for the most part, they are little better than so many hovels. The citadel stands in the higher part of the semicircular range from the shore; and there is a bastion, with a battery, at either extremity of the arc towards the sea, but no fosse on the outside of the walls.'

Manners of the Modern Greeks. — Nothing can exhibit a stronger contrast than the ideas excited in a traveller through Greece by the sublimity of the scenery on the one hand, and the backward state of manners and education on the other. We formerly took occasion, (M. R. Vol. lxii.) when reporting the work of a German traveller named Bartholdy, to apprize our readers of this mortifying difference; and we might now lay before them some sketches on the same subject from the pen of Dr. C., which would amply confirm the representation. We have not room, however, for such transcripts; and it is some alleviation of this painful feeling, to think that the ignorance of the modern Greeks is the result of temporary causes, — a blind government, an ill-educated priesthood, and an almost total want of national instruction. We turn with pleasure to the natural and permanent advantages of the country; under the assurance that, when the time shall come that the powers of Europe combine to release from their bondage the descendants of that people to whom we are all so largely indebted, the causes which were formerly productive of such rapid and extensive civilization will not be inoperative. A delightful climate, a happy mixture of vale and mountain, and a facility of maritime communication, are advantages on which we may be permitted, without fear of exaggeration, to rest the hope of great eventual improvement. At what time, or under what circumstances, Greece may be destined to reap again the enjoyment of those liberal gifts of nature, it would be idle to anticipate: but we may advert with satisfaction to the fact, that our recent acquisition of the Ionian islands is a very important step towards facilitating our communication with the main-land, and towards enabling our countrymen to carry on their literary researches with vigour. The only hazard is that the eagerness, shewn by some late travellers for fragments of sculpture, may induce the Turks to suppose that they contain a hidden treasure, and to break them up in that vain expectation. Still we may flatter ourselves with reaping an ample harvest from excavating the sites of antient cities; a course that has of late been pursued by several of our countrymen with extraordinary advantage. Among others, Mr. Graham * having caused an extensive excavation to be made at Athens, near the supposed site of the Academy, succeeded in discovering, and in afterward bringing to England, nearly a *thousand vases;* which may be considerd as so many distinct illustrations of the arts, mythology, and habits of the Athenians, from the earliest periods of their history.

We close our extracts relating to Greece with the following impressive passage:

> 'Memory easily recalls into one mental picture the whole of Greece; because it is portioned out by nature into parts of such magnitude, possessing, at the same time, so many striking features, that after they have ceased to appear before the sight, they remain present to the imagination. Every reader may not duly compre-

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* Sandford Graham, Esq. M. P.

hend what is meant by this; but every traveller, who has beheld the scenes to which allusion is made, will readily admit its truth; he will be aware, that whenever he closed his eyes, with his thoughts directed towards that country, the whole of it became spread before his contemplation, as if he were actually indulged with a view of it. In such an imaginary flight, he enters, for example, the Defile of Tempe from Pieria; and as the gorge opens towards the south, he sees all the Larissæan Plain: this conducts him to the Plain of Pharsalia, whence he ascends the mountains south of Pharsalus; then, crossing the bleak and still more elevated region extending from those mountains towards Lamia, he views Mount Pindus far before him, and, descending into the Plain of the Sperchius, passes the Straits of Thermopylæ. Afterwards, ascending Mount Œta, he beholds, opposite to him, the snowy point of Lycorea, with all Parnassus, and the towns and villages at its base; the whole Plain of Elatæa lying at his feet, with the course of the Cephissus to the sea. Passing to the top of Parnassus, he looks down upon all the other mountains, and plains, and islands, and gulphs of Greece; but especially surveys the broad bosoms of Cithæron, of Helicon, of Parnes, and of Hymettus. Thence roaming into the depths and over all the heights of Eubœa and of Peloponnesus, he has their inmost recesses again submitted to his contemplation. Next, resting upon Hymettus, he examines, even in the minutest detail, the whole of Attica, to the Sunian Promontory; for he sees it all, and all the shores of Argos, of Sicyon, of Corinth, of Megara, of Eleusis, and of Athens. Thus, although not in all the freshness of its living colours, yet in all its grandeur, doth Greece actually present itself to the mind's eye; — and may the impression never be removed! In the eve of bidding it farewell for ever, as the hope of visiting this delightful country constituted the earliest and the warmest wish of his youth, the author found it to be some alleviation of the regret excited by a consciousness of never returning, that he could thus summon to his recollection the scenes over which he had passed.

'ΥΜΕΙΣ Δ' ΗΠΕΙΡΟΙ ΤΕ, ΚΑΙ ΕΙΝ 'ΑΛΙ ΧΑΙΡΕΤΕ ΝΗΣΟΙ,
'ΥΔΑΤΑ Τ' ΩΚΕΑΝΟΙΟ, ΚΑΙ 'ΙΕΡΑ ΧΕΥΜΑΤΑ ΠΟΝΤΟΥ,
ΚΑΙ ΠΟΤΑΜΟΙ, ΚΡΗΝΑΙ ΤΕ, ΚΑΙ ΟΥΡΕΑ ΒΗΣΣΗΕΝΤΑ.'

Constantinople. — We now attend Dr. Clarke to the metropolis of the Turkish empire, and must give a portion of our space to his remarks on the rude and illiterate followers of Mohammed. The ground of Constantinople has been so often trodden, however, that we should scarcely deem it expedient to draw the attention of our readers to this part of the book, had not Dr. C.'s second residence in that city enabled him to make various observations which escaped the notice of preceding travellers. Arriving at Constantinople in January (1802), he remained there till the beginning of April; by which time *the snows on* Mount Hæmus were *dissolved, and a very favourable* opportunity offered to travel with the Turkish ambassador who was proceeding to Vienna. The interval was passed by Dr. C. and his companion chiefly at Pera; the part of Constantinople that is assigned to the residence of the French, English, and other Christians who sojourn in that capital.

The Ramadan or Turkish Lent occurred during Dr. Clarke's residence in Turkey, and afforded him an opportunity of remarking some amusing deviations from the injunctions of the Koran.

'During this fast, they abstain from every indulgence that can be considered as the smallest gratification of sense—even from smoking, or drinking water—the whole time that the sun is above the horizon: the consequence is, that the moment sun-set is proclaimed by the (Muezzinn) crier of a mosque, from a minaret, the Moslems abandon themselves to the most profligate excesses; and woe be to the (Djowr) infidel Christian, who happens to fall in their way during the moments of their frantic licentiousness! There is, however, much pretence in the rigour with which the Turkish fasts are said to be observed; as in all countries, where similar privations are enjoined by religion. There are some of the Moslems, no doubt, who observe the strictest abstinence, owing to the sincerity of their devotion: but there are many others who will both eat and drink when they can do this without being observed by one of their own religion. The Dervishes are, of all others, the most likely to violate the rules prescribed by the Koran, when they have an opportunity; and we often supplied them with the means. When alone with us they would eat pork, and drink wine, and laugh at the absurdity of considering such things to be forbidden. But the most amusing instance of this kind was afforded, during the Ramadan, by our Tchohodar. Having observed that the poor fellow, in his fatiguing journeys, took no refreshment when we halted for this purpose, although naturally corpulent and fond of good living,—but that he had the additional mortification of seeing us feed heartily upon such occasions,—we endeavoured, by every persuasion, and by putting before him the best provisions that the country afforded, to induce him to break his fast. It was all to no purpose: he shook his head and sighed, saying, that it was "contrary to his religion, and therefore impossible." At last we hit upon an expedient which enabled us to keep him in better plight for the future. We wrapped up the legs of a baked turkey in paper, with bread and salt; and when he was upon the road, at a distance from any town or village, where he could not be observed by any other Moslem, one of us, coming behind him, conveyed the packet into his hand. He no sooner saw what it contained, than muttering his (*Alhhamdu l'llah*) "God be praised!" with great energy, he fell to work, making as hearty a meal as any of us had done before: and in this manner we took care afterwards that he should be regularly supplied, leaving him to slake his thirst as he could from the fountains we passed on the road.'

Every important branch of commerce in Constantinople has a separate *bazar* or market; among the most remarkable of which is the *bazar* for drugs, a long and covered space in the shape of Exeter 'Change in London, but much larger. Here the traveller finds almost every vegetable production of the east, whether used as medicine or as perfume; opium is displayed in large black balls, and the smell of rhubarb is perceptible in every part of the market. Dr. C., being desirous of ascertaining the extent of ground occupied by Constantinople, rode twice round its walls; which, without including suburbs, cover an extent of not less than eighteen miles, and form three sides of a triangle, of five, six, and seven miles each. The two longer divisions adjoin the water, and furnish little that is remarkable to the antiquary: but the wall of five miles is the fortification on the land-side, built by Theodosius, flanked with mural towers, and defended by a *fosse* rather more than eight yards wide. It presents the same mixture of columns, inscriptions, and bas-reliefs, as the walls of other Greek cities; and its ivy-mantled towers, added to its crumbling condition, give it a picturesque appearance, like a succession of old ruined castles. The antient Byzantium was likewise of a triangular figure, but on a much smaller scale.

Climate. — We find repeated examples in this volume of our countrymen bringing illness on themselves by the use of animal food, with beer and wine; any of which, however abstemiously taken, are unsuitable to the state of the body in so hot and variable a climate. Speaking of Constantinople in the spring of 1802, Dr. C. remarks:

> 'There was hardly one of our countrymen, then resident in the capital, who did not experience occasional attacks of intermittent fever. — Constantinople is by no means a healthy place of residence, for persons who have not lived long enough there to become inured to the vicissitudes of its climate. The sudden changes of temperature, owing to the draught of wind through the straits, either of the Black Sea, or of the Sea of Marmora, render such persons liable to the most fatal effects of obstructed perspiration. — There can scarcely be found a spot upon earth more detestable than Péra; particularly in the most crowded part of it. We might be said to live in cemeteries; the only water used for drinking, passing through sepulchres to the feverish lips of the inhabitants, filled with all sorts of revolting impurities, and even with living animalculæ.'

Many of the towns, both in Greece and other parts of the Turkish dominions, are situated in so unwholesome an atmosphere, that the traveller can scarcely pass a single day or night in them with impunity. At Shumla in Bulgaria, not one of the author's party who had tasted animal food escaped an attack of intermittent fever; and it is a material aggravation of the distress in such a case, that no medical attendance can be obtained, unless, by some fortunate accident, an European physician happens to be on the spot. Dr. C. relates (p. 460.) a ludicrous exemplification of the state of medicine among the Turks: after the perusal of which we cannot desire farther proofs of their ignorance of this science, nor dissent from the remark of the Prince de Ligne, who in one of his lively compositions represents a veteran officer asking another; "*Comment font les Turcs aujourdhui; sont ils toujours aussi bêtes que de mon tems?*" This question Dr. C. had an ample opportunity of answering in the affirmative, when he travelled from Constantinople to Vienna with the ambassador and various persons of consequence. It was impossible to make these sagacious gentlemen comprehend what inducement our countrymen could possibly have to go out of the road to visit a mine that did not belong to them; and it was equally in vain to take them to the botanic garden or the elegant buildings at Pest. 'Persons educated in Constantinople are invariably characterised,' says Dr. C., 'by a total disregard of all objects of taste or literature.'

The travelling accommodations of Turkey are all on a par with this stagnant condition of the mental faculties: for the khans and caravanserais are found, on an actual visit, woefully inferior to the impression conveyed of these singular edifices in our Oriental tales.

Description of a Khan.—'All these places are alike in Turkey. There is not a dog-kennel in England where a traveller might not lodge more commodiously than in one of these khans; and the caravanserais are yet worse than the khans. A dirty square room, the floor covered with dust, and full of holes for rats, without even a vestige of furniture, is all he finds as the place of his repose. If unprovided, there is not the smallest chance of his getting any thing to eat, or even straw to lie upon.—This subject is merely touched upon, that persons who have not visited Turkey may know what they ought to expect, before they undertake a journey thither. Yet even to all this, weariness, and watchfulness, and shivering cold, and other privations, will at last fully reconcile travellers, and make them long for such a housing. In these places there is no separation of company;—masters and servants, cattle-drivers and guides, and every casual passenger of the road, lie down together.'—

'The caravanserai is the old inn of Turkey, where the Tartars generally lodge. The khan is considered as an improvement of a later age; but an English barn would be preferable to either. The caravanserais are surrounded by mangers for the cattle; above these mangers are a series of about forty fire-places, extending along the walls, for travellers to cook their victuals; with a small space where they may lie down, with their feet reaching quite into the manger.'

In proceeding through Greece and Thrace, the travellers were repeatedly exposed to inconvenient and even miserable lodging: but they seem never to have been in danger, except on one occasion, when they were forced to take up their quarters for the night at the town of Fairi in Rumelia, shortly after it had been laid waste by neighbouring banditti; who still continued to infest the road, but confined their vengeance to persons in the service of the Turkish government. Dr. C. and his friends, however, sustained no other inconvenience than the alarm.

The Turkish administration is so miserably managed in all its departments that the mere travelling of an ambassador, or other great officer, is considered as a public misfortune by the inhabitants. Nothing could surpass (p. 539.) the humane and upright character of the diplomatic functionary with whom Dr. C. journeyed to Vienna; yet such was the terror of his approach, that many of the inhabitants fled from their dwellings before his attendants entered their towns.* Still, the Doctor had soon reason to perceive, from the wretched state of the roads, and the still more wretched accommodations for travelling, that he had done well to avail himself of the authoritative influence of a Turkish grandee. His route for several hundred miles lay in an almost due northerly direction, along a part of the great provinces of Rumelia and Bulgaria; leading him in the latter through Shumla, the central city of the province, and afterward to Rustchuk, on the Danube, which formed the last place of consequence before he entered Walachia.

'We found it very difficult (says the author) to gain any decisive intelligence respecting the statistics of Walachia; so various and contradictory were the statements. There are two points alone wherein all agreed; namely, that of two classes of inhabitants, the one rich and the other poor, (without any middle class); the former were entirely occupied in defrauding each other; and the latter, without any occupation whatsoever excepting that of living "from hand to mouth," were almost in a state of starvation. Whence then, it will be asked, originates the wealth of Walachia? If you inquire in what its wealth consists, the inhabitants will answer, "Wine, barley, hay, honey, butter, hides," &c., as glibly as if all these possessions were everywhere to be found. Yet some of the articles thus enumerated are insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The quantity of wine made in the year preceding our arrival was estimated at eleven millions of piastres; but they had been obliged to import, over and above this quantity, from other countries, for the consumption of their own, as much as amounted in price to six or eight millions more: and a similar observation applies to some of their other productions. The account given of the produce of Walachia is, moreover, always exaggerated; for such are the blighting effects of the most selfish despotism, that cultivation is throughout neglected: if the peasant, by any contrivance, can barely obtain the means of subsistence, he seeks for nothing beyond it. The whole population of Bûkorest (the capital) does not exceed eighty thousand individuals; but the number of carriages kept amounts to four thousand. The fact is, that the streets are often almost impassable in any other way than upon wheels; and even in this manner it is not always easy to go through them.'

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* It is, therefore, with double satisfaction that we observe any example of virtuous disposition in private life amid so ill-governed a people; and this we find repeatedly exhibited in the volume before us; at one time (p. 438.) in a signal display of hospitality; at another (p. 569.) in a mild and condescending treatment of the slaves. It is also a curious fact that, backward as the Turkish workmen in general are, the art of book-binding is managed at Constantinople with great neatness, and even elegance; an advantage probably owing to the practice of binding MSS.

Transylvania. — 'After leaving Boitza, the country again became open; and we descended from the mountains into the fertile territories of Transylvania. Here every thing wore a new aspect; — immense plains of waving corn; jolly, smiling peasants; stout cattle; numerous villages; nothing, in short, that seemed like the country we had quitted. At four hours' distance from Rothenthûrn, we arrived at Hermanstadt, the capital of the province, a large and opulent town, full of inhabitants, situate in a campaign country. Hermanstadt contains fifteen thousand inhabitants. — The sight of handsome female faces at the windows was so new to us, that we seemed to be suddenly transported into another world. —

'April 30. — We went early to visit Baron Bruckenthal, after settling some dispute at the custom-house, and were employed the whole morning in the examination of his collection of pictures; perhaps the largest in the possession of any private individual in Europe. It contains many works by all the best masters; and they are indisputably originals. A part of his collection related to England. We saw a View of London by old Griffier, representing a fair by the side of the Thames; all the persons present being painted as wearing horns. This picture would be considered very valuable in England; because it affords a view of London, detailed with the utmost minuteness, as it existed towards the termination of the seventeenth century, when there were many windmills in the midst of the city, and fields now covered with squares and streets. — After examining the collection of pictures, we went to the dinner-table, where we had an opportunity of witnessing the old German ceremonies and manners; the Governor being present, and much company. — The dresses of the gentlemen were rather singular: they appeared in short-cut coats, or jackets, with bag-wigs and swords. The ladies too, affecting all the air and hauteur of a high German court, yet held their forks perpendicularly, grasping the handles as if they were holding walking canes, in a manner that would be thought singularly uncouth and barbarous in our country: but it is curious enough that whole nations are characterized by a peculiarity in the usage of the fork at table. D'Archenholtz, in his "Tableau D'Angleterre," says, that "an Englishman may be known anywhere, if he be observed at table; because he places his fork upon the left side of his plate." To this we might add, that a Frenchman may also be recognised at table, in using the fork alone, without the knife; a German, by planting it perpendicularly into his plate; and a Russian, by using it as a tooth-pick.'

After having passed through the southern part of Transylvania, the travellers proceeded eastward to Temeswar, the capital of the country known by the name of the Bannat, which has often been the subject of contest between Austria and Turkey. These powers fought for the possession of it, age after age, without ever bestowing attention on the means of draining its marshes, or giving the inhabitants the full benefit of the natural fertility of the soil. The consequence is that this tract, (considerably larger than Yorkshire,) though fertile, and capable of being carried to a very high pitch of cultivation, is so over-run with stagnant water as to affect its inhabitants and even casual passengers with intermittent and inflammatory fevers. This unfortunate circumstance applies particularly to the principal town, and made a German traveller of the name of Born say that, when at Temeswar, "he fancied himself in the realms of death and in the society of spectres." One of the most remarkable characteristics of this country is the extraordinary abundance of fish in its rivers, particularly in the *Theiss*, the antient *Patissus*.

'Such is the astonishing quantity of the fishes taken in this river, that a thousand carp have been sold for less than four shillings of our money: indeed it has sometimes happened, that the fishermen, wanting purchasers, have either fattened hogs with them, or cast them again into the water. This marvellous fecundity has been attributed to the communication which the waters of the country have with the salt mines. Certainly there is no part of the world so productive in this respect. The Bedrac, which falls into the Tibiscus near to Tokay, is, in summer, so full of fishes, that the inhabitants say it is then swelled by their prodigious number: and, with regard to the Tibiscus, a saying is current in the country, that "*it contains two* parts of water and one of fishes."'

No traveller ever hailed his return from the gloomy wild to the cheerful aspect of civilized society more ardently than Dr. C., when he exchanged the hovels of Turkey and the marshes of Hungary for the comforts of well-built cities, on entering the improved part of the Austrian dominions.

Pest and Buda. — 'We now beheld the spires of Pest, and the citadel of Buda, situate upon different sides of the Danube, at the foot of a chain of mountains, which rise with grandeur upon the western side of the river. The Danube separates the two cities, in other respects one. Buda is upon an eminence above the western, and Pest below upon the eastern bank. Pest is a very large and handsome city. We were conducted to its principal inn, called The Seven Electors. The streets are full of shops; and there are two theatres: there is also a handsome theatre at Buda. We were quite surprised by the magnificence of these two cities, of which so little intelligence has been communicated to other parts of Europe. Pest, situate in a plain, is adorned with public edifices, erected in a style of grandeur and elegance: it also boasts of a University, although as little known to the Universities of England, as Cambridge and Oxford are to its Hungarian professors. — Between the two cities, Pest and Buda, there is an immense bridge of boats, three-quarters of a mile in length. During the wars with Turkey, this place suffered much, being often taken and retaken: it is entirely commanded by the citadel of Buda, so that every part of it was exposed to the cannon from the opposite heights.' —

'The view from a balcony of the palace, elevated upon a rock above the Danube, exhibited one of the most striking sights we ever saw; owing to the peculiar nature and grandeur of the objects presented to the eye: it consisted of an extensive prospect of the Danube, diversified by islets covered with trees, the long bridge of boats, and the whole city of Pest, with all the campaign country intervening between this river and the Tibiscus, the gardens of the palace, and the suburbs, backed by lofty mountains which surround the city. Buda is well built, and more magnificent in its appearance than Pest; but both together, added to the advantages of their situation upon the Danube, their numerous gardens and diversified appearance, make this a delightful place of residence.— By the Germans, Buda is called Offen, or, as we should say, Oven; owing to its natural sudatories or hot baths. — In the lower town there are natural hot springs, supplying the baths for which it is renowned; but in the hill whereon the citadel stands there are also fountains, in which the temperature of the water is so different, that a person immersing his hand can hardly endure the coldness. The inhabitants of Buda amount to twenty-two thousand; those of Pest, to sixteen thousand; making altogether a population equal to thirty-eight thousand persons.'

We have in this latter part of the book a striking example of the effect produced by a prolonged residence on the continent, on our mode of estimating domestic comfort and convenience.

venience. Those German habits, which to Dr. C. on his leaving England had appeared aukward and uncouth, were hailed by him as both cleanly and comfortable on his return from the uncivilized regions of Russia and Turkey. Exactly similar is the remark made by those of our countrymen who settle in France; the first season being little else than a succession of annoyance and complaint; the second diminishing wonderously their objections; and eventually they become almost as indifferent to nice points of comfort as the natives of the country.

We intended to conclude our notice of this publication in the present article: but, far as we haved avanced in Vol. IV., it still contains materials which, united with the proposed *summing up* of our judicial remarks, will form additions that must be deferred to another Number.

[*To be concluded in the next Review.*]

Art. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1818. Part I. 4to. 1l. 10s. sewed. Nicol and Son.

A bulky portion of a volume is here presented to us, and the contents of it have an importance proportionate to their extent. It will require from us, therefore, a considerably detailed analysis. We begin with the papers on

Mathematics, Philosophy, &c.

On the great Strength given to Ships of War, by the Application of Diagonal Braces. By Robert Seppings, Esq. F.R.S. — We have noticed Mr. Seppings's former communication to the Royal Society on this subject, in M. R. Vol. lxxvi. p. 251. The principle of construction proposed by him consists of introducing oblique riders, instead of those of a perpendicular form which were employed in the common practice; and it appears that we have now 38 sail of the line and 30 frigates constructed on this new plan. Mr. Seppings seems to have had two objects in view in presenting this second memoir to the Society; first to claim the honour of having been the original projector of this construction: a point which is disputed by M. Dupin in his paper sent to the Royal Society, and published in Part I. for 1817; — and, secondly, to remove some doubts entertained by professional men, whether the braces ought not to have been placed in the direction of the trusses, and *vice versâ*. To decide on the latter question, it is necessary to inform the reader that, according to Mr. S.'s plan, the long braces are placed as above stated, obliquely, at an angle of about

45°

45° from the keel or keelson upwards, to a certain height; and that these are then crossed at right angles by short pieces or trusses: — the point in dispute was, whether the braces ought to incline from the middle towards the head and stern, upwards, or whether the short pieces ought to have this direction, and the former have the contrary. Mr. Seppings recommends and practises the latter mode; and, in the article before us, we have an account of an experiment made on an old Danish 74 gun-ship, the *Justitia*, in order, as it appears, principally to decide the question. This ship being destined to be broken up, and being in a very weak state, Mr. S. proposed that she should first be trussed by placing the long pieces or braces in a direction contrary to the usual practice; while the short pieces, which are intended to act as trusses, had of course also a contrary inclination. This being done while the ship was in dock, it was found, when she floated, that the short pieces, instead of acting as trusses, were not long enough by an inch, and from that to two and three inches, to reach their points of bearing; whence the correctness of the former construction seems to be established. — We should scarcely have deemed such an experiment requisite; since it is only necessary for us to consider, when looking at or imagining Mr. Seppings's framing, which of the diagonals of his rhomboids will have a tendency to shorten, and which to lengthen, by the *hogging* of the vessel; and it will immediately follow that the trusses ought to be placed so as to resist the former tendency, and the braces so as to oppose the latter: such being exactly the result in Mr. Seppings's construction: — but, whatever theoretical doubt might have been entertained on this point, the experiment above mentioned must surely be considered as completely decisive of the question.

With respect to Mr. Seppings's claim to priority of invention, we must leave him to settle the point with M. Dupin: — we have certainly seen something very like his construction, in a volume of plates belonging to an old French Dictionary of Naval Architecture.

A Memoir of the Geography of the North-eastern Part of Asia, and on the Question whether Asia and America are contiguous, or are separated by the Sea. By Captain James Burney, F.R.S. — It is here observed that a belief has prevailed for nearly a century, that the separation of America and Asia has been demonstrated by a navigation actually performed, and it is distinctly so admitted in the modern charts. The intention of this memoir, then, is to shew, first, that a satisfactory proof of such a separation does not exist; and, secondly, that, from peculiarities which have been observed by the author and others, when in the sea to the north of Bering's strait in the last voyage of Captain Cook, there is cause for supposing that Asia and America are contiguous, and parts of one and the same continent. In order to prove the truth of the former of these propositions, Captain Burney states that the idea of the separation founded on Deschnew's voyage, in which the Russians first discovered the sea to the east of Kamtschatka, is not so old as the voyage itself by nearly a century; having been first propagated by Muller from some original writings relating to this voyage found by him in Siberia in 1736. Captain B. does not doubt the veracity of Muller's relation, but suspects whether the authorities which he produces will warrant the conclusion that he draws from them. We cannot follow the ingenious writer through the several objections which he advances against this hypothesis: but we are clearly of his opinion that we have no decided proof of such a navigation having been performed.

On the second proposition, viz. the probability of Asia and America being contiguous, the author remarks that Captain Cook, after having coasted as nearly as possible the land of America to the N. and N. E., from Bering's strait, was at length stopped by ice in latitude 70° 40′ N.; whence he directed his course westward towards the coast of Asia. The observations made during this run lead Captain B. to imagine that the two continents are contiguous:

> 'The deepest soundings we had in all this sea did not exceed thirty fathoms, and this depth was found in latitude 68° 45′, midway between the coast of Asia and the coast of America. Northward, beyond that latitude, the soundings were observed to decrease: and in our run from the coast of America westward, we did not find the depth to increase, as is usual in running from land: which peculiarities made us conclude, that there was land at no great distance from us to the north, and that we were sailing on a line parallel with its coast. Northward of our track also, as we ran towards the Asiatic coast, was a continuity of ice which seemed as if formed into a close barrier by a long extent of coast.
>
> 'The nature of the soundings, with the absence of tide, gave to this sea so much the character of a Mediterranean sea, that some on board, in particular Mr. Bailey the astronomer, and myself, who being in the same ship communed on the subject, were strongly of opinion that we were inclosed by land to the north, and that Asia and America were there joined: but we dared not venture to call in question the authority of Muller.'

The reasoning here certainly goes towards establishing the author's position; and other arguments are advanced that have the same tendency, which we are sorry that our limits will not allow us to detail. We hope soon to be in possession of more decided information on this subject.

An Account of Experiments for determining the Length of the Pendulum vibrating Seconds in the Latitude of London. By Captain Henry Kater, F.R.S. — Every man of science in the kingdom is sensible of the degrading state of the English system of weights and measures, and of the necessity for reforming it: but, from the want of a proper attention to the subject, all are not aware of the difficulty of establishing a new system on a basis calculated to meet all the minute objections that may be brought against it. We shall say nothing here of the multiplication, division, and subdivision of the standard-measure; since this we conceive to be rather a matter of general policy than a question for scientific consideration: we shall only remark that, on this point, it is highly important to consider the long uses and prejudices of the people, and to avoid by all means the introduction of new names and new subdivisions merely for the sake of novelty, or of an apparent scientific perfection which the common people can neither appreciate nor understand. France furnishes us here, as in other instances, with an example that is to be avoided, not followed: for, by having entirely disregarded this consideration, and established a system highly scientific, but totally incomprehensible to the great mass of the population, the French appear, after various attempts to introduce it into general use, to have completely failed, and consequently have been finally left in the same situation in which they were at first, or perhaps in a worse; because, the new measures being received by some and rejected by others, they seem to have produced confusion instead of simplification.

Many of the French philosophers never completely adopted the new plan, and seem in several cases to have taken practically their measurements according to the old system although they were published in the new: so that various results or dimensions, stated for example in metres and decimals with great apparent accuracy, turn out when reduced to be some exact number of the old feet and inches. Even Bonaparte himself never would be told any dimensions, distances, &c. in the new measures; and if by chance an officer answered according to the new system, he would reply, "I don't understand your new measures: what is the distance in feet?" We have our information as to this fact from a French officer, on whose veracity we can confidently rely.

We have stated above, however, that this is a matter which does not belong properly to the subject before us; nor, indeed, are we informed by Captain Kater that his experiments have any reference to the establishment of a new system of measures: although we cannot but regard them as intimately connected with it, because they furnish that which, in our opinion, must be considered as one of the most unobjectionable standards of measure that is by any means to be obtained. The French philosophers, ever partial to all that has the appearance of *generality*, preferred to take an arc of the terrestrial meridian for their standard of measure; or rather the ten millionth part of that arc, which they called their *metre*, and on which all their other measures of length, capacity, and weight, were made to depend. The length of the seconds pendulum, we conceive, furnishes an equally certain and a much more simple standard; and we believe that it is with reference principally to this application of the measure, that a committee of the Royal Society has been appointed to examine this interesting subject. It is not, however, merely on this ground that the length of the seconds pendulum in a given latitude has long been an object of scientific inquiry. Many of the most eminent astronomers have conceived that the important question of the figure of the earth is much more likely to receive a satisfactory solution from experiments on the pendulum, than from any actual measurements of terrestrial arcs; and we understand that it was with the view of prosecuting such a series of experiments, that we had last year the honour of a visit from MM. Biot and Arago: the latter having made his observations at the Royal Observatory of Greenwich; and the former (accompanied by Colonel Mudge, Captain Mudge, Captain Coleby, and Dr. Gregory) at different northern stations; particularly at Edinburgh and Balta, one of the Shetland islands. Their operations, however, were independent. M. Biot, assisted by Captain Mudge, after having ascertained the number of vibrations of a detached pendulum, inferred the force of gravity from the length of it; while the English division contented themselves with the more simple process of determining the actual number of vibrations of the pendulum in an excellent clock by Pennington; of which the rate had been previously, and was to be subsequently, taken at the observatory belonging to the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. The results of these experiments have not yet been made public: but, the matter being of great scientific interest, we look anxiously for their appearance.

We have been led to the foregoing remarks by the intimate connection between the experiments of Captain Kater and the subjects above mentioned: but we now proceed to an examination of the article more immediately under consideration.

The object of the author being to determine the length of the pendulum vibrating seconds, he was of course led to reflections relative to the best method of accomplishing his purpose. The difficulty is to ascertain the distance of the centre of suspension from the centre of oscillation. After some reflection, Captain K. conceived the idea of availing himself of the well known property of oscillating bodies namely, that, if the centre of oscillation be made the centre of suspension, the former centre of suspension will become the centre of oscillation. This property, first pointed out by Huygens, has since found its way into most treatises of mechanics; and we believe that it is frequently exhibited by lecturers on this science: at least, we remember to have seen an apparatus of this kind among the instruments in the model-room of the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich. From a note, also, given by the present author, it appears that M. Prony had suggested the idea of this conversion of the centres of suspension and oscillation, in order to simplify his formulæ relative to the determination of the length of a seconds pendulum: but he recommended it merely as a means of simplification, not for the actual determination; and probably it was never employed precisely with this view but by the author of the present memoir. After all, however, the way was so completely open and direct, that we think it was scarcely worth the pains which Captain Kater has taken, to prove his claims to the honour of having first employed it for this purpose.

That the reader may see more distinctly the nature of this conversion, and the use which may be made of it, we will observe that, the distance of the centre of oscillation from the point of suspension depending on the *figure* of the body employed, if the arrangement of its particles be changed, the place of the centre of oscillation will be likewise changed. Suppose, then, a body to be furnished with a point of suspension; and another point, on which it may vibrate, to be fixed as nearly as can be estimated in the centre of oscillation, and in a line with the point of suspension and the centre of gravity. If the vibrations in each position should not be equal in equal times, they may readily be made so by shifting a moveable weight, with which the body is to be furnished, in a line between the centres of suspension and oscillation;

then the distance between the two points, about which the vibrations were performed, being measured, the length of a simple pendulum and the time of its vibration will be at once known, uninfluenced by any irregularity of density or figure. An unexceptionable method of determining the length of the pendulum being thus adopted, the next object was to find a mode of suspension equally admissible; and, after some trials and hesitation, the *knife-edge* was considered as the best. The pendulum was accordingly constructed with a view to such a principle of suspension; and this being the most important part of the apparatus, we shall state it at length in the author's words.

'The pendulum constructed upon these principles is formed of a bar of plate-brass, one inch and a half wide, and one-eighth of an inch thick. Through this bar, two triangular holes are made, at the distance of 39,4 inches from each other, to admit the knife-edges. Four strong knees of hammered brass of the same width as the bar, six inches long, and three quarters of an inch thick, are firmly screwed by pairs to each end of the bar, in such a manner, that when the knife-edges are passed through the triangular apertures, their backs may bear steadily against the perfectly plane surfaces of the brass-knees, which are formed as nearly as possible at right angles to the bar. The bar is cut of such a length, that its ends may be short of the extremities of the knee-pieces about two inches.

'Two slips of deal 17 inches long, and of the same thickness as the bar, are inserted in the spaces thus left between the knee-pieces, and are firmly secured there by pins and screws. These slips of deal are only half the width of the bar; they are stained black, and in the extremity of each a small whalebone point is inserted for the purpose of indicating the extent of the arc of vibration.

'A cylindrical weight of brass, three inches and a half diameter, one inch and a quarter thick, and weighing about two pounds seven ounces, has a rectangular opening in the direction of its diameter, to admit the knee-pieces of one end of the pendulum. This weight, being passed on the pendulum, is so thoroughly secured there by means of a conical pin fitting an opening made through the weight and knee-pieces, as to render any change of position impossible. A second weight of about seven ounces and a half, is made to slide on the bar near the knife-edge at the opposite end; and this weight may be fixed at any distance on the bar by two screws with which it is furnished.

'A third weight or rather slider of only four ounces, is moveable along the bar, and is capable of nice adjustment by means of a screw fixed to a clamp, which clamp is included in the weight. This slider is intended to move near the centre of the bar. It has an opening, through which may be seen divisions, each equal to one-twentieth of an inch, engraved on the bar; and a line is drawn on the edge of the opening to serve as an index to determine the distance of the slider from the middle of the bar.

'We now come to the most important part, the knife-edges. These are made of that kind of steel which is prepared in India and known by the name of wootz. Their form is triangular, and their length one inch and three quarters. Mr. Stodard was so obliging as to forge them for me: they were made as hard as possible, and tempered by immersing them merely in boiling water.

'The knife-edges were ground on a plane tool, which necessarily ensured a perfectly straight edge. This was ascertained by bringing the edge of the one in contact with the plane of the other, when, if no light was perceptible between them in any position, it was inferred that the edge was a right line. They were then carefully finished on a plain green hone, giving them such an inclination as to make the angle on which the vibrations are performed about 120 degrees.

'Previously to the knife-edges being hardened, each was tapped half way through, near the extremities, to receive two screws, which, being passed through the knee-pieces, drew the knife-edges into close contact with them; the surfaces of both having been previously ground together to guard against any strain which might injure their figure.'

A plan of the pendulum is given in a plate: but the reader of the preceding passage will find no difficulty in fully comprehending the construction without the assistance of the engraving. Passing over some descriptions of the author relative to the support, and other parts of the apparatus, we come next to the method adopted for determining the number of vibrations performed by the pendulum in a given time. For this purpose, it was indispensable to have a clock of great accuracy, of which the rate was constant, and well ascertained. Such an one was found in the possession of Henry Browne, Esq., who very obligingly allowed Captain Kater the use of his house and instruments, and much assisted him by his own personal attention. The clock with which the pendulum was compared was one of Arnold's make; and, in addition to the gridiron pendulum, the point of suspension was furnished with a spring, so adjusted that the vibrations in different arcs were all performed in equal times. A circular white disk was pasted on a piece of black paper, and attached to the ball of the pendulum of the clock; which disk was of such a diameter, that, when both pendulums were at rest, it was exactly hidden by the piece of black deal attached to the isolated pendulum (suspended a little in front of the clock) from an observer on the opposite side of the room; where, at the distance of nine feet, a stand and telescope were placed for the purpose of making the observation. The telescope, which had a very small magnifying power, was capable of a horizontal motion on its axis, of a vertical motion, and of a motion at right angles to the line of sight. In the focus of the eye-glass was a diaphragm, forming a perpendicular opening, the sides of which were parallel, and would allow of being placed nearer or farther asunder. The edges of this diaphragm were so adjusted as to form tangents to the horizontal diameter of the white disk, and consequently to coincide with the edges of the slip of deal. When, therefore, both pendulums were at rest, nothing was visible through the telescope, except a divided arc placed below the detached pendulum, to ascertain the arc of vibration. Supposing, now, the knife-edges and the moveable weight to have been so adjusted that the vibrations of the pendulum are either exactly or very nearly the same in either position, let us imagine both the clock-pendulum and the detached one to be put in motion; the brass pendulum rather preceding that of the clock, and the former vibrating by adjustment a little slower than the latter. The following will be the appearances:

'The slip of deal will first pass through the field of view of the telescope at each vibration, and will be followed by the white disk. But the distance between the centres of suspension and oscillation in the brass pendulum being rather the longer, the pendulum of the clock will gain upon it, the white disk will gradually approach the slip of deal, and at length, at a certain vibration, will be wholly concealed by it. The minute and second, at which this total disappearance is observed, must be noted. The pendulums will now be seen to separate, and after a time will again approach each other, when the same phenomenon will take place. The *interval* between the two coincidences in seconds will give the number of vibrations made by the pendulum of the clock; and the number of oscillations of the brass pendulum, in the same interval, may be known by considering that it must have made two oscillations less than the pendulum of the clock. Hence by simple proportion, as the vibrations made by the pendulum of the clock are to the number of vibrations made by the brass pendulum, so are the vibrations made by the pendulum of the clock in 24 hours to those of the brass pendulum in the same period.'

We believe that this method of determining the time and the number of vibrations, by coincidences, is exactly the same (at least in principle) with that which was practised by MM. Biot and Arago in Spain, and the same which the former of those gentlemen adopted in his experiments mentioned in a former part of this article. We were therefore rather surprized that Captain Kater did not allude to this circumstance, in the note in which he says; ‘ the *principle* on which this method of coincidences is founded was employed by Dr. Wollaston in May 1808, in some experiments in which he was then engaged; the moment of coincidence being determined however by sound, instead of sight.’ He should have added, and also by M. Biot:—let us do justice to ourselves, but not forget that which is due to ingenious foreigners.

The number of vibrations made in a given time being thus ascertained, the next important object was to determine the distance between the knife-edges, which had formed the lines of support in the two positions of the pendulum. Much accuracy was here required: but we cannot undertake to attend the author through his minute description of the apparatus, and the method of operation. A singular phænomenon, however, observed in the course of this process, must not be passed unnoticed; and it may be stated shortly thus. Captain K. measured the distance of the knife-edges in two ways; in the first, marks were made on the white paper of his apparatus, close to the knife-edges, at equal distances on each side of the bar; the microscopes were brought successively over them; and the distances were thus ascertained. In the second, the knife-edges bisecting the cross threads of the microscopes, pieces of black paper were slid beneath them, when they appeared to start forwards towards each other, the images continuing perfectly sharp and well defined; the distance between the knife-edges seemed now to be considerably less than before; and, from a series of experiments made with reference to this phænomenon, it appeared that a correction of ·000236 of an inch is to be subtracted from the measured distance when the knife-edges are viewed as dark objects on a light ground, and the same quantity to be added when they are seen as light objects on a dark ground. With reference to this unexpected result, Captain K. observes; ‘ From the few experiments I have made, this quantity appears to be the same, whatever may be the relative illumination of the object and its ground, so long as the difference of character is preserved. On the cause of this extraordinary fact I can hazard no conjecture, and it remains an interesting subject for future investigation.’

Having extended our remarks already to a considerable length, we must pass over several divisions of this curious article without entering into particulars: they consist of the author's method of determining the expansions of his pendulum; the corrections necessary to be applied to his results for the buoyancy of the atmosphere; an extensive detail of his experiments; corrections for his altitude above the level of the sea; and, on the latter subject, he very gravely informs us that, by several careful observations on an excellent *mountain-barometer* by Ramsden, he found the room in Mr. Browne's house in Portland-place to be *two feet* below the Royal Society's apartments!! Now, in the first place, Captain Kater must know that the correction for the two feet was wholly unimportant; and in the next place he ought to have understood that it has too much the appearance of *quackery* to attempt the measurement of such an altitude with such an instrument. That the best barometers will indicate a difference for an altitude of two or three feet, we do not dispute: but that this difference can be appreciated with sufficient accuracy to become the basis of a computation, experience induces us to deny.

Passing over some less important matter, we proceed to state the author's results, as compared with the standards of Sir G. Shuckburgh, Mr. Bird, and General Roy; which, when reduced to the level of the sea, and to the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, give the length of the seconds pendulum vibrating *in vacuo*, thus:

	Inches.
By Sir G. Shuckburgh's standard,	39·13860
— General Roy's scale,	39·13717
— Bird's parliamentary standard,	39·13842

The latitude of the place of observation was found, from the data contained in the Trigonometrical Survey, to be 51° 31′ 84″ north; which differs only 1-10th of a second from the latitude determined by Mr. Browne from a great number of observations. This looks a little more like an attainment of accuracy, than Don Joseph Rodriguez would have us believe to have resulted from the observations at Arbury Hill; where the supposed error amounted to four or five seconds. (See M.R. vol. lxxiii. p. 385.)

We ought not to conclude this statement without bearing testimony to the great care, skill, and accuracy with which the author has conducted his experiments and arrived at his conclusions. We imagine that they may be considered to have finally settled this long agitated question of the actual length of the seconds pendulum in the latitude of London; unless, indeed, any errors should appear to have been committed with respect to specific gravities, or in the reduction for the buoyancy of the atmosphere.

On the Length of the French Metre in Parts of the English Standard. By the Same. — One of the objects of the Committee of the Royal Society, appointed for the purpose o determining the length of the seconds pendulum, being the comparison of the French metre with the British standard measure, two metres were procured from Paris for that purpose. One was made in the usual manner; that is to say, so that the distance between its two plane-ends, which were supposed to be parallel, indicated its length. This was called the *mètre à bouts.* The other, which was a bar of platina, had the length of the metre shewn on it by two very fine lines; and this was named the *mètre à traits.*

'The width of the *mètre à bouts* is one inch, and its thickness 0,3 of an inch. On one side the word "MÈTRE" is engraved, and on the other, "FORTIN à PARIS." The terminating planes are supposed to be perfectly parallel, and the distance between them is the length of the mètre.

'The *mètre à traits* is the same width as the *mètre à bouts,* but only a quarter of an inch thick. The lines expressing the length of the mètre are so fine that one of them is scarcely perceptible even with the assistance of a microscope, unless the light be very favourable. The situation of the lines may however be discovered by two strong black dots made with a graver at the extremities of each, and a fine line crosses them at right angles to indicate the parts from which the measurements are to be taken.

'This mètre previous to being brought from Paris was compared with a standard mètre by M. Arago, with all that care and ability which he is so well known to possess, and which so delicate an operation requires. The result was, that the distance between the lines was found to be less than a mètre by $\frac{17,59}{1000}$ of a millimètre or, 00069 of an inch.'

The results of Captain Kater's measurement of these two standards, the detail of which we cannot undertake to report, are as follow; viz. the length of the *mètre à bouts* equal to 39·37081 inches, and that of the *mètre à trai* 39·37076 inches, on Sir G. Shuckburgh's standard-scale; an therefore the mean, which may be taken as the true length is equal to 39·37079 English inches. The mean length, compared with Bird's parliamentary standard, is 39·37062 inches.

Accounts of Experiments made on the Strength of Materials By George Rennie, jun. Esq.—The strength of materials i a subject of great importance, not only to engineers, but to every one who is concerned in massy architectural and othe constructions. It has accordingly engaged the attention o many practical and theoretical men, but unfortunately without any of them having arrived at conclusions which can be generally admitted to be correct; that is, they have not established principles of computation, which will enable us to calculate from one experiment what will be the result of another, in which the dimensions of the body and its position

are

hanged. Again, bodies may be submitted to strains in us ways; they may be crushed, or they may be drawn les; they may also be wrenched or twisted; and they be broken by a transverse strain, or be pressed endwise roken without being actually crushed.

ese suppositions present so many distinct cases, each of requires numerous experiments to be performed, in to furnish data on which we may found our principles mputation. The first of the strains, to which we have ed above, is that relative to which the greatest paucity formation was the subject of complaint; and yet it is eat importance in the erection of various works, par-rly bridges. This is the point to which Mr. Rennie irst directed his attention in the article at present under ideration. By means of an apparatus, which we cannot mpt to describe, he was enabled to produce very great ures, sufficient to crush pieces of iron, stone, and r substances of various sizes and figures. As the mean ts of such a series of experiments cannot fail of being ly useful and interesting, we shall present them to the er, in the most concise form that we can give to them.

	lbs.
A cube of cast iron of $\frac{1}{8}$ inch, specific gravity 7·033, was crushed with - - -	1439
Same base, altitude $\frac{2}{8}$ inch - - -	2116
Ditto ditto $\frac{3}{8}$ — - - -	2363
Ditto ditto $\frac{4}{8}$ — - - -	2005
Ditto ditto $\frac{5}{8}$ — - - -	1407
Ditto ditto $\frac{6}{8}$ — - - -	1743
Ditto ditto $\frac{7}{8}$ — - - -	1594
Ditto ditto 1 inch - -	1439

Vote. The specific gravity of the last seven specimens was 17.

	lbs.
A cube of cast iron of $\frac{1}{4}$ inch from a large block - -	9773
Ditto from a bar, cast *horizontally*, - - -	10114
Ditto from a bar, cast *vertically*, - - -	11136
Same base, altitude $\frac{1}{2}$ inch - - - -	9698

Horizontal castings.

Same base, altitude $\frac{3}{8}$ - - - -	9006
Ditto ditto $\frac{5}{8}$ - - - -	8845
Ditto ditto $\frac{6}{8}$ - - - -	8362
Ditto ditto $\frac{7}{8}$ - - - -	6430
Ditto ditto 1 inch - - -	6321

Similar results were obtained from the experiments on the *vertical castings.*

In these last experiments, a tolerably uniform diminution of strength is observed to follow an increase of length: but the anomalies in the first experiments in this respect seem very difficult of explanation; and we much doubt whether the reason stated by the author, that is to say, the difficulty of reducing such small specimens to equality of dimension, will satisfy either himself or his readers.

Experiments on different Metals.

			lbs.
¼ Inch cube of cast copper, crumbled with			7318
Ditto of fine yellow brass	ditto	-	10304
Ditto of wrought copper	ditto	-	6440
Ditto of cast tin	ditto	-	966
Ditto of cast lead	ditto	-	483

The ensuing experiments were made on the direct power of suspension, or direct cohesion of bars of ¼ inch square section; which were drawn asunder by the weights indicated.

	lbs.	
'¼ Inch, cast iron bar, horizontal -	- 1166	1193·5
¼ Ditto ditto vertical -	- 1218	
¼ Ditto cast steel previously tilted -	- 8391	
¼ Ditto blister steel, reduced per hammer	8322	
¼ Ditto shear steel, ditto ditto	- 7977	
¼ Ditto Swedish iron, ditto ditto	- 4504	
¼ Ditto English iron, ditto ditto	- 3492	
¼ Ditto hard gun metal, mean of two trials	2273	
¼ Ditto wrought copper, reduced per hammer	2112	
¼ Ditto cast copper - - -	- 1192	
¼ Ditto fine yellow brass - -	- 1123	
¼ Ditto cast tin - - - - -	- 296	
¼ Ditto cast lead - - - - -	- 114.'	

If we reduce the result of the English iron bar to a square inch section, we find that it gives 25 tons; which agrees exactly with the mean result of eight experiments performed by Mr. Barlow, of Woolwich [*], on bars of much larger dimensions, varying from one inch to two inches diameter. Similar experiments, performed by Mr. Telford, give the medium strength 29 tons per square inch. These last, as well as the former, are detailed at length by Mr. Barlow, in the "Essay" just quoted; and, on an examination of the action of the two powerful machines on which these respective experiments were made, that gentleman seems disposed to attribute the discrepancy in question to the circumstance of the one machine over-rating and the other undervaluing its own effect. Hence he assumes 27 tons per square inch as the medium strength of iron. This medium result, however, is drawn from iron of Swedish as well as English manufactory; and, if we include in Mr. Rennie's experiments his Swedish bar, the result gives 28 tons per inch; an agreement as near as can be expected in experiments in which such immense powers are applied.

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[*] See his lately published work, "Essay on the Strength of Wood and Iron."

Any new fact on this subject is at this time a matter of peculiar interest, in consequence of the severe trial to which the results are soon likely to be submitted, in the suspension of a bridge on an entire new principle over the Menai strait. Mr. Barlow, in his work above quoted, has described a projected bridge of this kind over the Mersey at Runcorn: but that to which we have above alluded is, we believe, already in progress, and, when completed, will perhaps form *one* of the boldest and most interesting applications of mechanical science that ever was made. A massy iron bridge *suspended* between two rocks, at the perpendicular height of 100 feet above the surface of the water, and 1000 feet in length, will be a construction perfectly unique; and highly honourable to the talents of its projector, (Mr. Telford,) as well as to the scientific character of the country.

We have been drawn into the above digression by the intimate connection between Mr. Rennie's experiments and this interesting construction; let us now return to the paper actually before us.

The next series of experiments refer to the twist or wrench of various materials: but our limits will not permit us to enter into particulars; and of those which relate to the crush of several materials, we can only allow ourselves to select the following:

			lbs.
1 Inch cube of elm, crushed with			1284
Ditto	American pine,		1606
Ditto	white deal,		1928
Ditto	English oak,		3860
Prism of Portland stone, altitude 2 inches			805
Ditto	statuary marble	ditto	3216
Ditto	Craig Leith	ditto	8688
1½ Inch cube, chalk			1127
Ditto	brick, pale red		1265
Ditto	ditto, red		1849

The succeeding experiments, on the transverse strength of cast-iron-bars with their ends supported loose on two fulcra, are too interesting to be omitted:

	Weight of the bars. lbs.	oz.	Distance of bearings. ft.	inch.	lbs. avoir.
‘ Bar of 1 inch square - -	10	6	3	0	897
Ditto of 1 inch, ditto - -	9	8	2	8	1086
Half the above bar - -			1	4	2320
Bar of 1 inch square through the diagonal - - - -	2	8	2	8	851
Half the above bar			1	4	1587
Bar of 2 inches deep, by ½ inch thick - - - -	9	5	2	8	2185
Half the above bar - -			1	4	4508
Bar 3 inches deep, by ⅓ inch thick	9	15	2	8	3588
Half the bar - - - - -			1	4	6854
Bar 4 inches, by ¼ inch thick -	9	7	2	8	3979

‘ *Equilateral Triangles with the Angle up and down.*

	Weight of the bars. lbs.	oz.	Distance of bearings. ft.	inch.	lbs. avoir.
Edge or angle up - -	9	11	2	8	1437
——— angle down - -	9	7	2	8	840
Half the first bar - -			1	4	3059
Half the second bar - -			1	4	1656
A feather-edged or ⊥ bar was cast whose dimensions were					
2 inches deep by 2 wide	10	0 edge up	2	8	3105
Half of ditto’					

The paradoxical experiment of Emerson was tried, which states that, by cutting off a portion of an equilateral triangle, the bar is stronger than when it is whole. The ends were loose at two feet eight inches apart, as above; the edge, from which the part was intercepted, was lowermost; the weight was applied on the base in the middle, as in the other experiments; and it broke with 1129 lbs., whereas a similar bar, when entire, broke with 840 lbs.

We must beg here to remark that we much suspect that the triangular bar above mentioned, viz. the 12th in the preceding experiments, was not sound. It is true that, according to the old theory, the bar in that position ought to be the weakest: but this is directly contradicted by several experiments reported by Mr. Barlow in his “ Essay,” as having been made by himself and by Mr. Couch of Plymouth Dock-yard. The latter gentleman also tried exactly the same experiment as that of Mr. Rennie, relative to Emerson’s theorem, but the result was entirely the reverse; and the deduction in the latter case was not the result of one experiment, but of several. It is true that Mr. Couch's experiments were made on wood, and those of Mr. Rennie on iron, and these materials may not both observe the same law: but it is also to be remarked that the same theory, which makes the triangular bar weakest with its edge downwards, makes the square bar the strongest when placed diagonally; whereas Mr. Rennie found it the weakest, as did also Mr. Barlow. Something therefore must be wrong in one or the other of these bars; and we should much wish Mr. Rennie to repeat the experiment to which we allude.

On Circulating Functions, and on the Integration of a Class of Equations of finite Differences, into which they enter as Co-efficients. By J. F. W. Herschel, Esq. F.R.S.—As we have already so much extended our remarks on the important articles contained in the present part of the Philosophical Transactions, we are under the necessity of passing over Mr. Herschel's communication without any comment: but we do this with the less regret, because we believe it to be impossible within any moderate limits to render his processes intelligible to our readers. We have some doubt, indeed, whether the memoir itself would be sufficient for this purpose. Such being the case, we could not repress a smile, after having perused about 20 pages, on finding the author seriously asserting that 'a variety of complicated questions, relative to the simultaneous employment of capital in different mercantile transactions, can scarcely be treated with perspicuity in any other way.' (P. 166.) Perhaps it would be adviseable for Mr. Vansittart, before the meeting of parliament, to take a few lessons in the doctrine of Circulating Functions.

On the Laws of Polarisation, and Double Refraction in regularly Crystallized Bodies. By David Brewster, LL.D. F.R.S., &c. — We have of late been frequently called to notice many valuable and interesting papers, which Dr. Brewster has presented to the Royal Society. In these communications, he has principally considered those branches of the polarization of light which relate to the superficial action, or the superinduced properties, of uncrystallized bodies. In the progress of the inquiries and experiments which laid the foundation of Dr. B.'s memoirs, his attention was of course frequently directed to the phænomena of regular crystals: but it was not till very lately that he was enabled to procure a sufficient and proper selection of specimens to reduce, under one general principle, all the complex appearances which result from the combined action of more than one axis of double refraction. It is the development of this general law which forms the subject of the article now before us.

Dr. B. observes that Dr. Young first directed the attention of philosophers to the perfect agreement between the beautiful theory of Huygens, and the double refraction of light as exhibited in calcareous spar: Dr. Wollaston's experiments afforded additional evidence of its exactness; and M. Malus raised it to the rank of a general principle. Laplace afterward attempted to refer the deviation of the extraordinary ray to the action of those attractive and repulsive forces, by which the ordinary refraction and reflection of light are produced. (See M. R. Vol. lxxv. p. 540.)

'This fine theory' (of Laplace) 'will no doubt be received by philosophers as a new proof of the high genius of its author; but while it is thus received, we ought carefully to consider whether the *Huygenian* law, upon which it rests, is the universal law of double refraction, or merely an elegant and correct expression of the individual phenomena of calcareous spar. Because this law represents with accuracy the action of a single crystal, is it thence to be presumed that all the other transparent crystals of the mineral kingdom possess the same structure, and exhibit the same series of appearances as calcareous spar? We venture to say that such a conclusion is scarcely possible in the present state of science; and that if it should happen to have been rashly drawn, it could not be deliberately supported by any one who is imbued with the cautious spirit of the inductive philosophy.'

M. Malus had examined, with the utmost care, the properties of *quartz, arragonite*, and *sulphate of barytes*; and he endeavoured to demonstrate the identity of their action with that of calcareous spar: but these experiments, Dr. Brewster asserts, are decidedly erroneous; for, out of the *three* crystals, the identity of whose action with that of the calcareous spar he is supposed to have demonstrated, *two* have more than one axis of double refraction.

'Here then is a difficulty of an unexpected kind: for if the experiments of Malus on these crystals are set aside as incorrect, what confidence can we place in his observations on calcareous spar, upon which the truth of the *Huygenian* law is founded? If nitre and arragonite, both of which have a powerful double refraction, had, in place of calcareous spar, been put into the hands of Huygens, Dr. Wollaston, or Malus, or of any other philosopher, however skilful, it is demonstrable that their measurements would have accorded with the theory of spheroidal undulations. Laplace would have connected this theory with the principles of mechanics, and it would have been universally received as a rigorously physical law. Yet after all this display of experimental and mathematical genius, the whole investigation would have turned out a delusion; for it can be shewn, by decisive experiments, that both *nitre* and *arragonite* have two axes of double refraction; and that the aberration of the extraordinary ray cannot be explained by a single ellipsoid.

'From these observations, therefore, we conceive it to be proved, not only that the *Huygenian* law remains undemonstrated as the general law of double refraction; but that it remains undemonstrated as a correct expression of the individual phenomena of calcareous spar.'

The author afterward shews that not fewer than *seven* out of the *twelve* minerals, employed by M. Biot, have two or more axes of double refraction; that sulphate of lime itself belongs to this number; and that all the irregularities of its action, which M. Biot has represented by empirical formulæ, are the legitimate and calculable results of two rectangular axes. The division of crystals into attractive and repulsive, and the reference of the phænomena of mica to two repulsive axes, of which the intensities are as 100 to 677, are also shewn to be entirely hypothetical.

Having thus, by means of a course of experiments, the detail of which occupies more than sixty quarto pages, pulled down the fabric erected with so much labour by MM. Laplace, Malus, and Biot, Dr. Brewster arrives at length at his own general theorem, or law of double refraction; viz.

'The increment of the square of the velocity of the extraordinary ray produced by the action of two axes of double refraction, is equal to the diagonal of a parallelogram whose sides are the increments of the square of the velocity produced by each axis separately, and calculated by the law of Huygens, and whose angle is double of the angle formed by the two planes passing through the ray and the respective axes.'

In concluding this article, we beg to offer our congratulations to Dr. Brewster on the gratifying results of his long and ardent pursuit; and to the Royal Society, on the more than ordinary interest which attaches to the memoirs contained in the present volume of their Transactions, as far as we have yet examined it. Several papers remain for consideration in another article.

[*To be concluded in the next Review.*]

Art. VII. *Narrative of a Voyage to Hudson's Bay in His Majesty's Ship Rosamond,* containing some Account of the North-eastern Coast of America, and of the Tribes inhabiting that remote Region. By Lieutenant Edward Chappell, R.N. 8vo. pp. 290. 12s. Boards. Mawman. 1817.

Art. VIII. *Voyage of His Majesty's Ship Rosamond to Newfoundland, and the Southern Coast of Labrador;* of which Countries no Account has been published by any British Traveller since the Reign of Queen Elizabeth. By Lieutenant Edward Chappell, R.N. 8vo. pp. 270. 12s. Boards. Mawman. 1818.

It has happened in the publication of these volumes, that the narrative which first appeared details the last of the two voyages; which is thus explained in a prefatory advertisement by one of our well-known travellers, Dr. Clarke.

'Towards the close of the year 1814,' says the Doctor, 'a young naval officer, Lieutenant Edward Chappell, who had recently returned, for the second time, from an expedition to the *north-eastern* coast of America, brought to Cambridge a collection of the dresses, weapons, &c. of the Indians inhabiting *Hudson's Bay*, requesting that I would present these curiosities to the public library of the University. This collection so much resembled another which the Russian Commodore Billings brought to Petersburg from the *north-western* shores of the same continent, and part of which Professor Pallas had given to me in the *Crimea*, that, being desirous to learn whether the same customs and language might not be observed over the whole of North America, between the parallels 50° and 70° of north latitude, I proposed to Lieutenant Chappell a series of questions concerning the natives of the *north-eastern coast;* desiring to have an answer to each of them in writing, founded upon his own personal observations. In consequence of this application, I was entrusted with a perusal of the following journal. It was written by himself, during his last expedition; and having since prevailed upon him to make it public, it is a duty incumbent upon me to vouch for its authenticity.'

This is the history of the publication of the Hudson's Bay voyage; and probably its reception encouraged the author to print the narrative of the voyage which had preceded it. Each expedition was directed to the north-eastern coast of America, yet the one is unconnected with the other. It is our province to notice them in the order in which they came before us: but it appears proper to remark that it is an omission, which is liable to create misconception, that the dates of the performance of these voyages are not specified in the respective title-pages. Dr. Clarke has given, in his short prefatory discourse, a list of services performed by Lieutenant

tenant Chappell, which is very creditable to so young an officer.

In May 1814, the Rosamond sloop of war was ordered to take the outward bound Hudson's Bay vessels (two ships and a brig) under her convoy. 'It is a rule with the Hudson's Bay Company to make their ships always break ground on the 29th of May;' and they were so exact on this occasion, that they joined the Rosamond at the Nore on the 30th. On the 4th of June, they departed from that station, and on the 14th they anchored at Stromness, where they obtained provisions and water, and remained till the 29th.

On the ship taking her last departure from the land, Lieut. C. observes; 'In my narrative, I shall merely state on each day the course and distance run by the ship in the preceding day, without making a dull account of latitude, longitude, bearings, and distances, allowances for lee way, currents, &c. &c.; as all this farrago of nautical calculation, however necessary it may be to mariners, cannot fail to tire out the patience of a general reader; and the object of this publication is not so much to point out the track of the Rosamond, as to describe the manners and customs of the different tribes inhabiting the shores of that immense gulf, *Hudson's Bay.*' In relating a navigation over an open and known sea, it is not simply dull, but (which makes it more so) evidently useless, to require the reader to wade through a daily account of the sea-reckoning; no part of which it can be necessary for him to know, unless it be rendered essential by some unusual circumstance. Lieutenant Chappell, in giving only half of the particulars of each day's track, has spared the reader one half: but the method which he has adopted, independently of its irregularity, is objectionable on the score of selection. If, of the four articles of sea-reckoning, viz. *the course steered, the distance sailed, the latitude reached,* and *the longitude,* only two are stated, those two should be the latitude and the longitude; and then we should have the true and essential points of the track. In the account given of the Rosamond's navigation across the Atlantic, the course and distance sailed are set down many days following, unaccompanied by any other circumstance of the reckoning; which, if particular information were wanted, would be unsatisfactory.

In the latter part of the passage to the American coast, the ships fell in with ice-islands, or, as it is now the fashion to call them, ice-bergs, which multiplied as they drew nearer to the land; and, which we regard as much more extraordinary in that cold climate, in crossing the entrance of *Davis's Strait,* they saw a number of the sea-fowl called tropic-birds. July 28. the Rosamond passed Cape Resolution Island, which is the northern land of the entrance of Hudson's Strait; and they were shortly afterward visited by Esquimaux Indians.

'On the first intelligence of their approach,' says the author, 'I ran upon deck; where the most discordant shouts and cries assailed my ears. Alongside the ship were paddling a large assemblage of canoes, of the most curious construction: these were built of a wooden frame-work of the lightest materials, covered with oiled seal-skin, with the hair scraped off; the skin being sewed over the frame with the most astonishing exactness, and as tight as parchment upon the head of a drum. But the most surprising peculiarity of the canoes was, their being twenty-two feet long, and only two feet wide. There was but one opening in the centre, sufficiently large to admit the entrance of a man; and out of this hole projected the body of the Esquimaux, visible only from the ribs upwards. The paddle is held in the hand, by the middle; and it has a blade at each end, curiously veneered, at the edges, with slips of a sea-unicorn's horn. On the top of the canoe were fastened strips of sea-horses' hide, to confine the lance and harpoon; and behind the Esquimaux were large lumps of whale blubber, for the purposes of barter. These canoes are only capable of containing one person, for any useful purpose; the slightest inclination of the body, on either side, will inevitably overturn them; yet in these frail barks will the Esquimaux smile at the roughest sea; and in smooth water they can, with ease, travel seven miles an hour.'

The rate, at which the canoes of the Esquimaux Indians paddle, has most probably been estimated from their keeping pace with a ship which was making that way. We take this occasion for observing that, although we have continual rowing-matches in this country, and mostly on the Thames, we receive no information respecting the velocity with which a boat can be rowed, and are merely told that one boat has been made to go faster than the others which lost the race. Yet it might be of use to be generally known, and, if no other purpose was answered than that of satisfying curiosity, as it can be done without cost, it is worth while to ascertain, by actual measurement with log and line, at what rate boats can be rowed in smooth water; independently of the effect of tide or current.

The author's opportunities for remarking on the Esquimaux Indians were not of long continuance; and we will not lessen the value of his book by giving unreasonable extracts. The intercourse of the Rosamond with them in Hudson's Strait was perfectly amicable. At one time, the ship was wholly inclosed by ice at the distance of seven leagues from the land; yet some of the Indians effected their passage to her, 'by dragging their canoes over different fields of ice which obstructed their progress.' Lieut. C. mentions a custom among these Indians, and says that an instance of it was communicated to him, which may have originated in superstition or in barbarous policy, but in either case is deplorable.

'In one of their periodical visits to Churchill factory for the purpose of traffic, a young woman was seen amongst them, having a sickly infant in her arms, respecting whose health she appeared to be particularly solicitous; and as some of the domesticated Indian women in the factory, belonging to the nation of Cree Indians, partly understood the Esquimaux tongue, the young woman explained to them, that, as the infant was her first-born child, if it should unfortunately die, her husband would undoubtedly put her to death. The infant expired shortly after this explanation took place; and some Europeans visiting the Esquimaux encampment a day or two afterwards, made inquiries respecting the unhappy mother; when the Indians silently pointed to the spot where the poor victim was interred!'

Another custom was related of the Indians generally, in this part of America; which, as far as punctilious self-denial is attributed to them, it must be difficult to credit.

'If the Indians be so fortunate, during their hunting journeys, as to kill a rein-deer in the woods, they eat of it until they literally cannot cram another mouthful. When their meal is finished, they erect a high stage, on which they lay the remainder of the carcase, so as to secure it from the wild beasts; and then cover it with branches of trees, to defend it against the birds of prey. All this trouble is taken, that the food which they are compelled by necessity to leave behind them may be of service to some wandering tribe of hunters like themselves, who may not have been so fortunate as to have met with any deer in their journey.

'When, therefore, in traversing the immense plains or forests of the interior, a half-famished Indian descries at a distance one of those charitable stages erected on high for his relief, he hails the cheering sight with the same feelings of delight that is experienced by a tempest-tost and bewildered sailor, when he descries, through the dark clouds of a stormy night, the cheering fire-beacon which denotes the situation of a sheltering port. Whenever an Indian has satisfied his hunger at one of the stages in question, he marks the supporting poles with the character peculiar to his tribe; so that those to whom he is indebted for relief may perceive, on their return, whether their friends have benefitted by their humane intentions. And it is a singular point of honour amongst them, that if, by the characters before mentioned, they should discover that the stage had been [illegible] in an hostile tribe, they will rather suffer the severest pangs of hunger than be obliged to their enemy for relief.'

Lieutenant Chappell has given a short account of the different settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company; and here we think he has been too severe in his censure on the American traveller Hearne, for not making a defence with a very small force in two forts at the entrance of Churchill River against La Perouse in 1782, who had under his command a line of battle ship and two large frigates.

A chart of the Great Nelson River, constructed by Mr. William [illegible] Master in the Royal Navy, soundings in different parts of Hudson's Bay, and other nautical remarks which the author's efforts will tend to improve our present imperfect charts of that Bay. An Appendix also contains an account of the variation of the weather, and a vocabulary of the language of the Cree Indians, a tribe or nation inhabiting parts of the shores of Hudson's Bay. In the passage homewards, the Rosamond sailed from Hudson's Straits to the Orkney Islands in [illegible] days.

We come now, after the manner which among mariners is called heaving about, to speak of the author's voyage to Newfoundland; the performance of which, as above noticed, preceded that of the voyage to Hudson's Bay. If the subject creates but small expectation of entertainment, it will not weary the reader by having been lengthened: but we must disapprove of the large quotations which the author has so freely made in this small volume, and from works which are either in general circulation or easily to be obtained.

In the outset, Lieutenant C. remarks on the inconvenience of Cork harbour as 'a port for the assemblage of fleets destined for America, because an easterly wind, which is favourable for the voyage across the Atlantic, renders it at the same time extremely difficult for a large convoy to beat out of the harbour. The Rosamond and her convoy attempted three times to leave the place with light easterly winds, and were as often compelled to relinquish the task as impracticable.' This is certainly a consideration of importance; as is, at the same time, another which arises out of it, viz., whether any other port in the south of Ireland can be found equally convenient and well adapted for furnishing outward-bound fleets with provisions.

The Rosamond arrived on the great bank of Newfoundland May 10. 1813; and on the next day, in 36 fathoms depth of water, they caught in a quarter of an hour as much fine cod as supplied every mess in the ship.

'Hallibuts, also, of the most enormous size, were frequently drawn to the surface of the water: but it was exceedingly difficult to get them on board; as they generally succeeded, by an apparently slight exertion of their ponderous strength, in breaking away from every means that could be devised for securing them.

'The fishermen of Newfoundland are much exasperated whenever an unfortunate hallibut happens to seize upon their baits: they are frequently known, in such cases, to wreak their vengeance on the poor fish, by thrusting a piece of wood through its gills, and in that condition turning it adrift upon the ocean. The efforts which are made by the tortured fish, to get its head beneath the water, afford a high source of amusement to the barbarous fishermen; who have facetiously styled this operation, the "sprit-sail yarding of a hallibut."'

We select this extract in order to make more manifest and to reprobrate the wickedness of the cruelty which it relates. — Immediately after their arrival on the bank, the ships met with ice-islands, a circumstance by no means uncommon: but floating ice has of late, in consequence of our northern expeditions, attracted more than an ordinary degree of public notice. On the 21st of May, the Rosamond made the island of Newfoundland.

'The town of St. John's, the capital of Newfoundland, consists of one very narrow street, extending entirely along one side of the port. The houses are principally built of wood; and there are very few handsome or even good-looking edifices in the place. This street stands upon very irregular ground, and is not paved; therefore, in wet weather, it is rendered almost impassable, by mud and filth. There are a great number of small public-houses, but scarcely one tolerable inn: the London Tavern, however, has a good billiard-room attached to it. Shops of all descriptions are very numerous; but most commodities are extravagantly dear, particularly meat, poultry, and vegetables, as the town receives all its supplies of those articles from Nova Scotia. The number of wharfs for lading ships is remarkable: almost every petty merchant, indeed, possesses one of his own: and there is, besides these, a fine broad quay, called the Government Wharf, which is open for the accommodation of the public.

'The island of Newfoundland is governed by a Vice-admiral of the British Navy, whose jurisdiction extends also over the coast of Labrador.'

Respecting the population, the author remarks on the erroneous calculations which have been made by others*; after which it would have been more satisfactory if he had

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[*] Brookes's Gazetteer, 1815, states that about 500 families continue at Newfoundland all the year, and that it is visited by at least *10,000 people in the fishing season.*

given an estimate of his own. The inhabitants of St. John's do not stand high in his favour. 'The state of society (he says) in St. John's is such as might be expected where the majority of the principal inhabitants have risen from the lowest fishermen — whose unwearied industry during the fishing season in summer is forcibly contrasted with their unbounded licentiousness in winter.' At another time, he relates; 'in the evening of this day, some of our officers went to a sort of rustic ball, given by the fishermen's daughters in a hut at Sandy Point: and on their return, they gave a comic description of their different partners, all of whom, it appeared, had been dressed in the most burlesque finery for the occasion.' It may be hinted to Lieut. C. that there is something *too much* of censoriousness in this, unsoftened as it is by any conciliating compliment which 'the occasion' might naturally have inspired; as, for instance, that among the fishermen's daughters some were handsome as well as young. Do not females generally, of every rank, and also a majority of the younger of the other sex, in preparing for a dance, decorate themselves more or less in fanciful and capricious, or what the author might call burlseque, finery? The young, however, do not need defenders; attention and kindness of disposition shewn to the elder part of the sex, as it is probably the least self-interested, we esteem to be the greater act of gallantry. In the Hudson's Bay voyage, the author visited an Indian wigwam or hut, where, besides men and children, he saw 'one old and one young woman.' — 'The young woman gave to one of our party a deer's heart and tongue: and the old squaw, whose aspect was sufficient to give a disrelish to the whole sex, kindly tossed into my lap a head and brisket.' This is not a gracious mode of acknowleging an act of kindness; and with the preceding instance, just quoted, it is to be regarded as an inadvertence of expression which is incident to young writers. We notice them, also, as introductory to some other remarks by Lieutenant C. that are equally inconsiderate, and which we deem it more requisite to answer.

In the introduction to the Newfoundland voyage, the author has said 'that no attempt towards a north-east or a north-west passage is likely to be attended with success on the part of any commander who shall adopt the method which Captain Cook pursued!' The explanation of this censure is given on the Rosamond falling in with ice in the Straits of Belle Isle; when the author observes:

> 'No subject is less generally understood by nautical men than that part of their duty which relates to the management of a ship

in icy seas. — A sea, covered with broken fragments of ice, closely wedged together, and extending as far as the eye can reach, presents an intimidating and, apparently, an insurmountable obstacle to persons who are unacquainted with such situations. The immortal Cook, whose abilities as a seaman can never be surpassed, was yet ignorant of this peculiar tactic: nor is it to be wondered at, for this is not to be acquired by any theoretical instruction, but must be entirely the result of much practical knowledge. To the total inexperience of Cook, in this respect, his failure, in the chief object of his voyage, may be attributed. When he first attempted to penetrate the frozen sea round the North of America, in the year 1778, he found a vast glut of drift-ice, blocking up the passage off the Icy Cape. A commander better skilled in the art of icy navigation would have instantly pushed his ship into the midst of this accumulated mass, and endeavoured to force his way through it, in spite of all impediments: but to effect this, it would be necessary, for insuring the safety of the vessel, that she should be conducted by some able ice-pilot.'

The remarks which follow we shall not repeat: but, together with those which we have quoted, they seem to have arisen from so material a circumstance as the lateness of the season, at which Captain Cook first fell in with the ice, not having entered (or not sufficiently entered) into the author's consideration. It was on the 15th of August, that the Russian Captain, Bering, discovered the east cape of Asia, and ascertained that the coast thence took a westerly direction; and he then remarked that it was time to return, because, if beset by the ice, they might not be able to disengage the ship. In the month of August, also, the vessel of William Barentsz was inclosed by the ice at Nova Zembla, and did not afterward get clear. Bering's Strait is known to be closed up by ice in October. Captain Cook had been most actively employed, from the beginning of March through the whole summer, in examining and surveying the western coast of North America, from the point at which he first fell in with it, and which was in latitude 43 degrees north, to the Icy Cape. August was far advanced before he passed Bering's Strait, and this was much too late to entertain the idea of discovering in that year either a north-west or a north-east passage. His motive in going farther north, at that season, was merely to reconnoitre, previously to his early return for the purpose of making the attempt in the summer ensuing; and September arrived before he re-passed Bering's Strait. If, according to the opinion given by Lieutenant Chappell, he had, late in August, attempted to pass through the barrier of ice to the northward of his ship, he must in all probability have wintered there. — It is but justice to add that, on other points, the author has spoken of Captain Cook with the respect due to his great talents.

The account given of the settlement of the Micmac Indians in Newfoundland, though written in a style rather romantic, we perused with satisfaction; since it affords a reasonable prospect of gradual improvement in the manners and condition of the remaining native North Americans.

In conclusion, we may remark that this young and intelligent author has occasionally betrayed an ambition to be lofty or eloquent in description; which induces him sometimes to prefer such expressions as 'gentle waves,' 'pellucid waters,' 'cerulean skies,' &c., to the natural and more sensible language of plain narrative.

Art. IX. *Recollections of Curran and some of his Coëmporaries.* By Charles Phillips, Esq. 8vo. pp. 407. 12s. Boards. Hookham, jun. 1818.

Whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the oratorical powers of Mr. Phillips, all readers will allow him on the present occasion the merit of having furnished them with a very amusing book. This, however, may be deemed *equivocal* praise, because an amusing book may be produced with so slight an effort of genius, if the compiler has good materials, that those who least admire him may award it without compromising their opinions on subjects of higher pretence: but, as our reports of his orations have been accompanied by both praise and censure, we may express a favourable opinion of the production before us without any apology for ourselves. We think, indeed, that this volume has several points of attraction; and the name of Curran is undoubtedly one of its greatest. His steady patriotism, his undaunted courage, his nervous eloquence, his ready wit, the times in which he lived, the men with whom he associated, the party which he espoused, and the causes which he advocated, all excite an interest in a work professing to contain recollections of his life. We may add to these recommendations, that the book is pleasantly *got up;* it exhibits no ostentatious profession; and the style, to use a favourite expression with the author, is more *pretensionless* than that of some of his other compositions. We suspect, too, that the intimacy which evidently subsisted between Mr. Curran and Mr. Phillips, during the latter years of that eminent man, may make an impression on our minds somewhat favourable to *the writer;* for it is impossible totally to forget the old *maxim, "noscitur à sociis."*

Mr. Phillips does not pretend to give a detailed account of Mr. Curran's life; and his narrative is indeed rather meagre in facts and dates. Neither does it contain, as we might have expected from the peculiar turn of the author's mind, any laboured attempt to draw the character of its hero, or even to describe it in any other manner than by the incidents which are narrated. It is little more, therefore, than a collection of anecdotes and events, gleaned from his co-temporaries at the bar, and from the communications of his friend; and it is in truth most properly designated under its modest title, 'Recollections of Curran.'

The detail commences with a statement of the author's claim on what he rather curiously calls the reader's '*credulity*;' which, as it agreeably introduces us to the personal acquaintance of Curran, while it gives a fair specimen of the narrator's manner, we shall extract. He describes the admiration with which, from his earliest years, he had been accustomed to hear the name of Curran; and the delight with which he received, when a 'bagless and briefless' barrister, his first invitation to dine with Mr. C., then Master of the Rolls.

'Never shall I forget my sensations when I caught the first glimpse of the little man through the vista of his avenue. There he was, as a thousand times afterwards I saw him, in a dress which you would imagine he had borrowed from his tipstaff — his hands in his sides — his face almost parallel with the horizon — his under lip protruded, and the impatient step and the eternal attitude only varied by the pause during which his eye glanced from his guest to his watch, and from his watch reproachfully to his dining-room — it was an invincible peculiarity — one second after five o'clock, and he would not wait for the Viceroy. The moment he perceived me, he took me by the hand, said he would not have any one introduce me, and with a manner which I often thought was *charmed*, at once banished every apprehension, and completely familiarized me at the Priory. I had often seen Curran — often heard of him — often read him — but no man ever knew any thing about him who did not see him at his own table with the few whom he selected. He was a little convivial deity! he soared in every region, and was at home in all — he touched every thing, and seemed as if he had created it — he mastered the human heart with the same ease that he did his violin. You wept, and you laughed, and you wondered, and the wonderful creature who made you do all at will never let it appear that he was more than your equal, and was quite willing, if you chose, to become your auditor. It is said of Swift, that his rule was to allow a minute's pause after he had concluded, and then, if no person took up the conversation, to recommence himself. Curran had no conversational rule whatever; he spoke from impulse, and he had the art so to draw you into a participation, that though you felt an inferiority, it was quite a

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contented one. Indeed nothing could exceed the urbanity of his demeanour. At the time I speak of, he was turned of sixty, yet he was as playful as a child. The extremes of youth and age were met in him; he had the experience of the one and the simplicity of the other. At five o'clock we sat down to dinner, at three in the morning we arose from table, and certainly half the wish of the enthusiastic lover was at least conceded — "*Time*," during that interval, "*was annihilated.*" From that day till the day of his death I was his intimate and his associate. He had no party to which I was not invited; and party or no party, I was always welcome. He even went so far as to ask me to become his inmate, and offered me apartments in his town residence. Often and often he ran over his life to me to the minutest anecdote — described his prospects — his disappointments and his successes — characterized at once his friends and his enemies; and in the communicative candour of a six years' intercourse repeated the most secret occurrences of his history.'

Mr. Phillips seems to have preserved his enthusiasm to the last; for never did a biographer speak, and seem to feel, more affectionately for his subject. He has done well, therefore, not to compose a regular life; because, though a partiality for the hero is necessary to render any piece of biography interesting, yet that partiality must not be so excessive as to blind the writer, and to preclude a fair discussion of those incidents of a life of which the propriety may be doubtful. The plan adopted by Mr. Phillips is both a wise and a pleasant course; for he has rendered it unnecessary not only to enter into such discussions, but even to consider whether in fact any grounds for them exist.

Mr. Curran was born at Newmarket, an obscure village in the county of Cork, and seems to have inherited from his mother the wit and eloquence with which she delighted her little circle. His father was too poor to give much education to his son; whose excentricities and humour made him at once the hero and the dread of the village-youths. In one of his frolics, he became the substitute for Mr. Punch's man, who was ill; and lucky was it for him and for the world that he accidentally found a patron in Mr. Boyse, the respected rector of the parish, who taught him the rudiments of the classics, sent him to school, and then placed him as a sizar at Trinity College, Dublin. He afterward proceeded to London, where he studied at the Middle Temple; and, on his return to his native country, he was called to the Irish bar in 1775, 'with, as he said himself, no living possession but a pregnant wife.' The first fee of any importance was given to him by the recommendation of the unfortunate Lord Kilwarden, then *Mr. Arthur Wolfe;* who was the first to notice his superiority over the crowd of idlers that 'paced the hall of the Four Courts.' Curran wanted only opportunity to shew his talents; and the consequence of his exertions on that occasion was that he attained almost immediately the high professional estimation, which he supported till his advancement to the Bench in 1806, during the short-lived administration of his party. He, however, felt his appointment of Master of the Rolls rather as a descent from the high station which he held at the bar than an elevation; and he considered himself as unfairly treated in being placed in a situation for which he acknowleged his incompetency, and to perform the duties of which his habits of life and of study had rendered him peculiarly unfit. It must be supposed, also, that the pecuniary dispute, which arose between him and Mr. Ponsonby on the occasion, assisted in disgusting him with the office. He resigned it six years afterward; and Mr. Phillips informs us that then 'Mr. Curran's mind began to prey upon itself, and the dejection to which even his youth had been subject, grew with his years into confirmed hypochondriasm.' His spirits, however, would occasionally revive; and to the last he would frequently delight his hearers with flashes of genius and of wit. He died on the 13th of October 1817 at Brompton, near London, having been struck with apoplexy a few days before.

With the style of Curran's eloquence at the bar, and in the senate, our readers are, no doubt, well acquainted; and a volume of his speeches has been for some years before the public. We think, therefore, that Mr. Phillips has rather unnecessarily increased the size of his book by introducing a number of extracts from those speeches; though he has made one or two additions, of no great interest.

Mr. Curran's wit has formed many valuable portions of the stock-pages of a jest-book: but, at the risk of repeating what some persons may have heard before, we shall extract two or three of Mr. Phillips's 'Recollections' for the amusement of others. We have just legal knowledge sufficient to admire the first that we shall quote; and perhaps we quote it as much to shew our proficiency as to entertain those who may equally relish it:

> 'He was just rising to cross-examine a witness before a Judge who could not comprehend any jest which was not written in *black letter*. Before he said a single word, the witness began to laugh. "What are you laughing at, friend — what are you laughing at? Let me tell you that a laugh without a joke is like — is like ——" "Like what, Mr. Curran?" asked the Judge, imagining he was non-plussed — "Just exactly, my Lord, like a contingent remainder without *any particular estate* to support it." '

The classical application in the next anecdote rivals any of Porson's similar effusions:

> 'When he was in college, the Rev. Dr. Hailes, one of the fellows, during a public examination, continually pronounced the word *nimirum* with a wrong quantity: it was naturally enough the subject of conversation, and his Reverence was rather unceremoniously handled by some of the academic critics. Curran affected to become his advocate — " The Doctor is not to blame," said he, — " there was only one man in all Rome who understood the word, and Horace tells us so —
>
> ' " Septimius, Claudi, *nimirum* intelligit *unus.*" '

The following shews that he was not very ceremonious to the Bench:

> 'He was addressing a jury on one of the state trials in 1803 with his usual animation. The Judge, whose political bias, if any a judge can have, was certainly supposed not to be favourable to the prisoner, *shook his head* in doubt or denial of one of the advocate's arguments. " I see, gentlemen," said Mr. Curran, " I see the motion of his Lordship's head; common observers might imagine that implied a difference of opinion, but they would be mistaken — it is merely accidental — believe me, gentlemen, if you remain here many days, you will yourselves perceive, that when his Lordship *shakes his head* there's *nothing in it.*" '

What would *our* Judges have said to such an unbecoming attack on their wisdom? — but the legal atmosphere of Ireland seems to create a greater freedom of speech, and to encourage more extended indulgence in the humour of both Bench and Bar, than the more heavy air of the English arena would tolerate. In no other city than Dublin could the ensuing most facetious occurrence have taken place:

> 'Lord Avonmore loved a jest in his very heart. He could not resist it even upon the bench, and his friend, well aware of the propensity, used not unfrequently to wage war against the gravity of the judgment-seat. He has often related, facetiously enough, an attack which he once made upon the mingled simplicity and laughter-loving disposition of the Chief Baron; who, with all his other qualifications, piqued himself, and very justly, on his profound classical acquisitions. He was one day addressing a jury of Dublin shop-keepers, so stupid and so illiterate that the finest flights of his eloquence were lost on them. " I remember, gentlemen," said he, stealing a side glance at the unconscious and attentive Lord Avonmore, " I remember the ridicule with which my learned friend has been pleased so unworthily to visit the poverty of my client; and remembering it, neither of us can forget the fine sentiment of a great Greek historian upon the subject, which I shall take the liberty of quoting in the original, as no doubt it must be most familiar to all of you. — It is to be found in the celebrated work of *Hesiod*, called the '*Phantasmagoria.*' — After expatiating

upon the sad effects of poverty, you may remember he pathetically remarks —

> ' " Nil habet infelix paupertas durius in se
> Quam quod ridiculos homines facit——"

Lord Avonmore bristled up at once — " Why, Mr. Curran, Hesiod was not an historian — he was a *poet*, and for my part I never heard before of any such poem as the *Phantasmagoria.*" — " Oh, my good Lord, I assure you he wrote it." — " Well, well, it may be so — I 'll not dispute it, as you seem to be so very serious about it, but at all events, the lines you quoted are *Latin* — they are undoubtedly *Juvenal*'s." — " Perhaps, my Lord, he quotes them from the Phantasmagoria." — " Tut, tut, man, I tell you they 're *Latin* — they 're just as familiar to me as my Blackstone." — " Indeed, my good Lord, they 're Greek." — " Why, Mr. Curran, do you want to persuade me out of my senses? — I tell you they 're *Latin* — can it be possible that your memory so fails you?" — " Well, my Lord — I see plainly enough we never can agree upon the subject — but I 'll tell you how it can easily be determined — if it was a legal question, I should of course bow at once to the decision of your Lordship, but it is not — it 's a mere matter of fact, and there 's only one way, I know, of deciding it — send it up as a collateral issue to that jury, and, I 'll be bound, they 'll ——*find it Greek.*" The joke flashed upon the simplicity of Lord Avonmore — he literally shook with laughter; and that the whole picture might preserve its *keeping*, Curran declared he extended his immense hand over the cheek that was next the jury-box, *by way of keeping them entirely out of the secret.*'

Lord Avonmore (Yelverton) was one of Curran's earliest friends, both being members of a society of the choicest spirits in the Irish metropolis, who were called " *The Monks of the Screw*;" and in the sketches of the different members of this convivial club, as well as of the other persons of eminence whose names are mentioned in his work, Mr. Phillips has been very successful. Curran was installed Grand Prior of the Order; to become a companion of which must have been an object of legitimate ambition, when it consisted of Flood, Grattan, Curran, Father O'Leary, Lord Charlemont, Judges Day, Chamberlaine, and Metge, Bowes Daly, George Ogle, Lord Avonmore, M'Keller, and a whole host of such men. Of all these, Lord Avonmore was the most favourite intimate of Curran; who seems, however, to have delighted to take every waggish advantage of the simplicity of that learned and excellent Judge. We have already cited one instance, and another may perhaps not be unpleasant.

' Amongst his (Lord A.'s) other peculiarities, he was in the habit of occasional fits of absence. One day at a crowded dinner, the common toast of our *absent friends* was given. Curran, as usual, sat beside Lord Avonmore, who was immersed in one of his habitual reveries, altogether unconscious of what was passing. He maliciously aroused him — "Yelverton — Yelverton — the host has just announced your health in very flattering terms — it is considered very cavalier in you not to have acknowledged it." — Up started the unsuspecting Yelverton, and it was not till after a very eloquent speech that he was apprised of the hoax in which it had originated!'

An unfortunate difference interrupted the friendship of these eminent men; and, though we have already quoted largely, we cannot refrain from extracting Mr. C.'s very elegant and affecting address to Lord A. on the bench, which produced their reconciliation:

'I am not ignorant, my Lords, that this extraordinary construction has received the sanction of another court, nor of the surprise and dismay with which it smote upon the general heart of the bar. I am aware, that I may have the mortification of being told in another country of that unhappy decision; and I foresee in what confusion I shall hang down my head, when I am told it. But I cherish too the consolatory hope, that I shall be able to tell them, that I had *an old and learned friend*, whom I would put above all the sweepings of their hall, who was of a different opinion; who had derived his ideas of civil liberty from the purest fountains of Athens and of Rome—who had fed the youthful vigour of his studious mind with the theoretic knowledge of their wisest philosophers and statesmen; and who had refined that theory into the quick and exquisite sensibility of moral instinct, by contemplating the practice of their most illustrious examples — by dwelling on the sweet-souled piety of Cimon; on the anticipated Christianity of Socrates; on the gallant and pathetic patriotism of Epaminondas; on that pure austerity of Fabricius, whom to move from his integrity would have been more difficult than to have pushed the sun from his course. I would add, that, if he had seemed to hesitate, it was but for a moment; that his hesitation was like the passing cloud that floats across the morning sun, and hides it from the view, and does so for a moment hide it by involving the spectator without even approaching the face of the luminary; and this soothing hope I draw from the dearest and tenderest recollections of my life, from the remembrance of those *attic nights* and those *refections of the gods*, which we have spent with those admired and respected and beloved companions who have gone before us—over whose ashes the most precious tears of Ireland have been shed: yes, my good Lord, *I see you do not forget them* — I see their sacred forms passing in sad review before your memory — I see your pained and softened fancy, recalling those happy meetings when the innocent enjoyment of social mirth expanded into the nobler warmth of social virtue, and the horizon of the board became enlarged into the horizon of man; — when the swelling heart conceived and communicated the pure and generous purpose — when my slenderer and younger taper imbibed *its borrowed light* from the more matured and redundant fountain of yours. Yes, my Lord, we can remember those nights with no other regret than that they can return no more, for,

"We spent them not in toys, or lust, or wine,
But search of deep philosophy,
Wit, eloquence, and poesy—
Arts which I loved; for they, my friend, were thine."'

In a very different style is Mr. Curran's speech before the Lord Chancellor, Lord Clare, one of his 'most powerful, most inveterate, most persevering,' enemies; who entertained an animosity against Mr. Curran 'which first assailed his character, then his person, and finally, in his own court but too successfully, his professional practice.' In this speech, under the pretence of giving the character of a former Chancellor, he described that of his Lordship, so accurately that nobody could mistake the application. We extract it as a specimen of Mr. C.'s power of invective, and as a contrast to the preceding beautiful and pathetic appeal:

'In this very chamber did the Chancellor and Judges sit, with all the gravity and affected attention to arguments in favour of that liberty and those rights, which they have conspired to destroy. But to what end, my Lords, offer arguments to such men? A little peevish mind may be exasperated, but how shall it be corrected by refutation? How fruitless would it have been to represent to that wretched Chancellor, that he was betraying those rights which he was sworn to maintain; that he was involving a government in disgrace, and a kingdom in panic and consternation; that he was violating every sacred duty, and every solemn engagement, that binds him to himself, his country, and his God! Alas! my Lords, by what argument could any man hope to reclaim or to dissuade a mean, illiberal, and unprincipled minion of authority, induced by his profligacy to undertake, and bound by his avarice and vanity to persevere? He probably would have replied to the most unanswerable arguments by some cant, contumelious, and unmeaning apophthegm, delivered with the fretful smile of irritated self-sufficiency and disconcerted arrogance; or even, if he could be dragged by his fears to a consideration of the question, by what miracle could the pigmy capacity of a stunted pedant be enlarged to a reception of the subject? The endeavour to approach it would have only removed him to a greater distance than he was before; as a little hand that strives to grasp a mighty globe is thrown back by the re-action of its own effort to comprehend. It may be given to an Hale or an Hardwicke to discover and retract a mistake: the errors of such men are only specks that arise for a moment upon the surface of a splendid luminary; consumed by its heat, or irritated by its light, they soon disappear: but the perverseneses of a mean and narrow intellect are like the excrescences that grow upon a body naturally cold and dark: no fire to waste them, and no ray to enlighten, they assimilate and coalesce with those qualities so congenial to their nature, and acquire an incorrigible permanency in the union with kindred frost and kindred opacity. Nor, indeed, my Lords, except where the interest of millions can be affected by the vice or the folly of an individual, need it be much regretted that to things not worthy of being made better, it hath not pleased Providence to afford the privilege of improvement.'

Mr. Curran entered the Irish parliament in 1783. His efforts there, though great, were not equal to his forensic displays, and he himself well explains the reason: (p. 147.) but his honourable conduct in the first session deserves to be recorded.

> 'Lord Longueville, who was the proprietor of the borough of Kilbeggan, returned Curran under an idea of his own, that a barrister, with a growing family, and totally dependent on his profession for subsistence, would scarcely suffer his principles to interfere with his interest. I am afraid the annals of parliamentary life will be found in but too many instances to countenance his Lordship in this humiliating supposition. However, in Curran the rule found a stubborn exception: on the very first question he not only voted against his patron, but, by at least an energetic speech, proved the total fallacy of all his anticipations. Lord Longueville of course warmly remonstrated; but what was his astonishment to find Curran not only persevering in his independent opinions, but even appropriating the only five hundred pounds he had in the world to the purchase of a seat, which he insisted on transferring as an equivalent for that of Kilbeggan!'

Neither this anecdote, nor his high-toned political independence in parliament, — nor, still more, his manly intrepidity and inflexibility during the disastrous periods of 1798 and 1803, — will ever be obliterated from the recollection of his countrymen. His opinion on the subject of the Union may be collected from the following anecdote:

> 'He was one day, shortly after the debate, setting his watch at the Post-office, which was then opposite the late Parliament-house, when a noble member of the House of Lords, who had voted for the Union, said to him, with an unblushing jocularity, "Curran, what do they mean to do with that useless building? for my part, I am sure I hate even the sight of it." — "I do not wonder at it, my Lord," replied Curran, contemptuously; "I never yet heard of *a murderer* who was not afraid of *a ghost*."'

We must, however, close this article; in which we have rather followed the desultory manner of Mr. Phillips, than attempted to give a connected history of Mr. Curran's life, or to enter into any political discussion respecting the momentous period which it embraced. We may safely recommend the volume as being that which it professes to be; and, though the *author evidently* shews, by his justification of the practice,

(p. 178.) that his own speeches had the benefit of previous preparation, and that in fact he gloried like Demosthenes in their smelling of the lamp, he will perhaps not be offended by our saying that we much prefer his style in this volume, which has clearly not had that advantage, or disadvantage.

Art. X. *Conversations on Botany.* With Plates. 12mo. pp. 213. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1817.

It has long been our wish to see an Introduction to Botany which might be put into the hands of the young of both sexes, and avoid the slightest risk of awakening in their minds any ideas but those of the most perfect purity; — a work which, without in any degree diminishing the excellence of the Linnéan system, might present itwholly divested of its character of sexuality. The sexual doctrine of that great man has been so long and so intimately interwoven with every thing like botanical arrangement, that the one seems in some measure inseparable from the other; and such a currency was at one time given to discussions respecting this beautiful analogy between the vegetable and the animal kingdoms, by the writings of Dr. Darwin and others, that their indelicacy appeared to be wholly overlooked. In the masterly elementary work of Sir J. E. Smith, this subject is treated with great ingenuity and beauty of language; yet we do not hesitate to say that it is perhaps brought too strongly into view, for the purposes of instructing youth of both sexes. It has always appeared to us unnecessary to make the sexual doctrine a prominent feature in any course of popular lessons on botany; and the execution of the little volume before us sufficiently proves the accuracy of such an opinion, since it is constructed on the plan of entirely excluding all notice of this subject, and restricting the attention of the pupil completely to the Linnéan arrangement. The classes and orders of that system are illustrated by the description, usually, of native plants; and the tedious uniformity of the task is interrupted by amusing details respecting the economical uses of many of our own as well as foreign vegetable productions.

The object of the publication, as the author states, 'is to enable children and young persons to acquire a knowledge of the vegetable productions of their native country, by introducing to them in a familiar manner the principles of the Linnæan system of botany,' (preface): but we can safely recommend the perusal of it, with great prospect of improvement,

ment, even to those who have made some progress in botanical knowlege. The language of botany here used is almost wholly English; and for this reason the author has been constrained, though not without regret, to adopt that modification of the Linnéan system which Dr. Withering has introduced into his arrangement of British plants: for, as it is here truly remarked, the work of that excellent botanist is at present the only book of reference on this subject that is calculated for persons who are unacquainted with Latin. The Flora of Dr. Hull may perhaps be considered as forming an exception to this remark: but his language is not English, it is merely a slight remove from the Latin, differing only in its terminations.

The present tract is conducted, agreeably to its title, in the form of Conversations, which are carried on in familiar and lively dialogues between a mother and her son. The questions asked by the boy are exactly those which a beginner in botany would naturally feel puzzled to answer; and the replies of his fair tutor are conveyed in a manner at once pleasing and perspicuous. The style of the whole would lead us to believe that its anonymous author is a lady; and this we consider as expressing praise of the work: for we presume that our readers will agree with us in admitting the superiority which well educated females possess in the ease and interesting graces of conversation. However this may be, the writer of these Conversations shews an extensive acquaintance with the economical uses of plants, and with those anecdotes of their history which serve to impress a character of peculiar interest on many of the individuals of the vegetable kingdom. We shall select a few passages of this nature, as specimens of the style and information of the author. In treating of the tribe of Lilies, the following interesting remarks are introduced:

> ' The bulbous root of the Kamschatka lily, Lil'ium Camschatcen'se, called by the natives Saranne, forms a principal part of the food of the inhabitants of that country. Providentially this plant is very abundant in Kamschatka; all the grounds there blooming with its flowers during the season. At the periods when fish is scarce, the saranne is plentiful, and when there is a dearth of this food the rivers supply provision. The roots are gathered by the women, dried in the sun, and laid up for use. After being baked they are ground to powder, which serves as the flour that the best Kamschatkan bread is made of; and they are also sometimes eaten like potatoes.
>
> ' But it is not to the labour of the women alone that the Kamschatkans are indebted for a stock of these roots; a species of mouse saves them a great deal of trouble in procuring it. The

saranne forms part of the winter-provisions of that little animal, which not only gathers them in the proper season and lays them up in its magazines, but has the foresight to bring them out to dry in sunny weather to prevent their decaying. The natives search for these hoards, but always take care to leave a part for the mice, to save those useful little creatures from perishing for want of food.'

For the succeeding story, the author has been indebted to Hearne's Journey: but we beg to quote the passage as an instance of the happy and easy manner in which these conversations are conducted:

'I forgot to mention to you, when we were speaking of the first order of this class,' (Polyandria,) 'that the dye, called Anotta, is obtained from the berries of a tree belonging to it, called Bix'a Orella'na, a native of the East and West Indies. The Mexicans employed the anotta, which affords a bright orange colour, in staining wood and in drawing. The bark makes good ropes for common purposes; and the wood is much used by the American Indians for procuring fire, which they do by rubbing pieces of it together.'

'*Edward.* You promised once to tell me a story of a poor Indian woman, who suffered a great deal because she did not know this way of making a fire.

'*Mother.* I did so; and as we have finished our thirteenth class, you shall hear it now, though it has no immediate relation to Botany, for it shows the value of knowledge and ingenuity in time of distress. I read the account in Hearne's Journey to the Northern Ocean.

'When some of Hearne's companions were hunting, in one of the wildest parts of North America, they observed the track of a strange snow-shoe.

'*Edward.* What sort of a shoe is that?

'*Mother.* It is made of an oblong wooden rim, with cords woven like a net, from side to side, something like the rackets with which you play, but much longer and wider than the foot; and it is used to prevent the person who wears it from sinking in the soft snow.

'The party followed the track, and came at last to a little hut, where they discovered a young woman sitting alone. They soon found that she understood their language, and was one of a western tribe of Indians, who, with some others, had been taken prisoners by another tribe. The savages, according to their custom, surprized her party in the night, and her father, mother, husband, and even her young child, who was only five months old, were put to death. This act of cruelty gave her such an abhorrence of those Indians, although she herself was treated with great kindness, that she resolved to escape from them, and, if possible, to return to her own country at the hazard of the greatest misery and danger; she succeeded in escaping; but the windings of the rivers and lakes were so numerous, that she lost her way, and was obliged, with her own hands, to build the hut in which she was found, to give her shelter during the winter.

‘ From her account of the number of moons that had passed since her escape, (for that was her way of reckoning time,) it appeared that she had been near seven months without seeing a human face; during all which time she had supported herself very well by snaring partridges, rabbits, and squirrels.

‘ The methods practised by this poor creature to procure a subsistence were truly admirable. When the few deers’ sinews that she had taken with her were all used in making snares for game, and sewing her clothes, she had nothing to supply their place but the sinews of the rabbits’ legs and feet; these she twisted together with great dexterity; and the wild animals that she caught not only supplied her with food, but she had made of their skins a suit of neat and warm clothing for the winter.

‘ Five or six inches of an iron hoop, made into a sort of knife, and the iron head of an arrow, which served her as an awl, were the only tools this poor woman had; but with these she had contrived to make herself complete snow-shoes, and many other useful articles.

‘ It would scarcely be imagined, that a person in her forlorn situation could be so composed as to contrive or execute any thing that was not absolutely necessary to existence; but all her clothing, besides being calculated for real service, showed great taste and even variety of ornament.

‘ Her hours of leisure from hunting had been employed in twisting the inner bark or rind of willows into small lines like twine, of which she had prepared several hundred yards; and of this she intended, as the spring advanced, to make a fishing net, after the manner of her country.

‘ One of her greatest difficulties was to make a fire, for she had no other materials for that purpose than two hard stones; but by rubbing or striking these together for a long time, she obtained a few sparks, and at last succeeded in kindling some touchwood.

‘ *Edward.* What wood is that?

‘ *Mother.* It is not the produce of any particular tree, but dry rotten wood, of almost any kind, which is used to catch the sparks struck from steel or iron by a flint. I suppose that the poor woman found, by accident, some pieces of this description, and struck out sparks upon them from the two hard stones; but as this method was very laborious and uncertain, she was obliged to keep her fire burning, with great anxiety, through the whole winter.’

Even objects of the most constant occurrence in the vegetable kingdom are invested by the author with a character of interest.

‘ The common broom,’ it is observed ‘ Spar′tium scopa′rium, belongs to this class, (Diadelphia,) and grows wild in England, as *well as the furze,* U′lex Europæ′us, that you see in such large *bushes on the heath.* This last shrub, though it is so abundant in

England, is by no means common in other parts of Europe; Portugal and France produce it more plentifully, perhaps, than any other country except our own.

'When Linnæus came to England, in the year 1736, he was so much delighted with the golden bloom of the furze, which he saw for the first time on the commons near London, that it is said, he fell on his knees in raptures at the sight.

'In Cornwall this plant grows, with great luxuriance, to the height of six or eight feet; but it will not bear severe cold. Linnæus tried to preserve some plants of it through the winter in Sweden, under cover, with as much care as we bestow on hothouse plants, but without success.'

On the subject of the Mosses, the author has drawn some amusing particulars from the works of Linné; and the aquatic *Algæ* are also presented to us in a manner by no means devoid of attraction.

'In Scotland, the sea-tangle, Fu′cus digita′tus, as well as the dulse, Fu′cus palma′tus, is employed as food; and the stems of the former plant are sometimes used for making handles of knives. For this purpose a thick stem is chosen, and cut into pieces about four inches long; the hilts of the knives are struck into these, while fresh, and as the stem dries, it contracts and hardens firmly around them. These handles, when tipped with metal, can hardly be distinguished from horn. The large stalks of the plant are dried, and used as fuel in the Orkney and Shetland islands.

'The size that some of the larger kinds of sea-weeds attain, and the rapidity of their growth, are truely wonderful. The gigantic fucus, F. gigante′us, is said to extend to the length of a thousand or fifteen hundred feet: and it grows in such profusion, that the masses of it resemble islands. In the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans, there are vast tracts of sea-weeds; one of which has been called by navigators the grassy sea, from its great extent. The entire surface is literally covered with these plants; and ships on their voyages are several days in passing through them.

'The Fu′cus te′nax is employed in China as glue and gum-arabic are with us: when washed and steeped in warm water, it dissolves, and as it cools stiffens into a glue, with which large sheets of paper are smeared to make them transparent: and these are used instead of glass, for making lanterns and windows. In China, too, the windows are sometimes made of slips of bamboo, which are crossed, and the spaces between filled up with thin sheets of this glue alone.

'The Fu′cus lichenöi′des is in high estimation in the East Indies, particularly at Ceylon, as a luxury for the table. You will be surprised to hear that the *nests* of a kind of swallow are eaten in China, and throughout the east, as a delicacy, and even imported to London. These nests, it is supposed, are made by the birds almost entirely of the Fu′cus lichenöi′des.'

The author has drawn, as we might expect, numerous particulars from the *very excellent* Principles of Botany by Professor Wildenow; and occasionally, though not without acknowlegement, from Sir James Edward Smith's elementary work. Many of the facts, however, which are introduced in the volume before us, are selected for the present publication from various accounts of voyages and travels. The professed object of the writer is to initiate the young in a knowlege of the arrangement of plants; and this we think, as far at least as the first twenty-three classes are concerned, has been most successfully accomplished: but, had the nature of the plan permitted, some account of the physiology of vegetables might likewise have been introduced with advantage. This we would recommend as the subject of a second volume of Conversations; which, if executed with the same care and ability that distinguish the present performance, could not fail to obtain a flattering reception.

Twenty plates accompany the work; one of which presents a tabular view of the Linnéan classes; another, the anatomy of the flower; a third, examples of the five orders of cryptogamic plants; and the remainder consist of representations of individual specimens, illustrative of the system of Linné. These are all well executed; and the characters of the several flowers are given with great accuracy and distinctness. Prefixed are a few excellent rules for the pronunciation of the Latin names of plants; and the names themselves are throughout carefully accented. Of the general correctness with which this is accomplished, we are well convinced: but Aristolochia we consider as an exception to this remark, the accent being thrown by the author on the antepenultimate syllable, instead of the penult. A slight confusion has slipped into the definition of the term herb. 'Herbs,' we are told, 'are all such plants as bear flowers and seeds *but once*, and then die. If this happens in one year, they are called annuals; when they bear leaves in the first year and flowers in the second, and then die, they are called biennials; or if they live and flower *for more years than two* they are called perennials.' (P. 72.) The author has been led into this inconsistency by adopting Wildenow's definition of herbs; without recollecting that this writer considers perennials not as herbs but as under shrubs, *suffrutices*; see Wildenow's Principles of Botany, p. 156. At the conclusion of the volume before us, explanations are given of the technical terms used in the work; forming an accurate though by no means an extensive glossary of English botanical language.

On the whole, we cannot take leave of this little publication without strongly recommending it to the attention of those who are employed in the instruction of youth: nor ca we refrain from again suggesting to its author the idea of treating, according to the same plan, the most beautiful and interesting discoveries of vegetable physiology. As an useful auxiliary in this object, we would suggest the perusal of M. Mirbel's *Elements of Vegetable Physiology*, reported at p. 462. of the *Appendix* to our last volume, which is published with this Number.

Art. XI. *A Succinct Account of the Contagious Fever of this Country*, exemplified in the Epidemic now prevailing in London; with the Appropriate Method of Treatment as practised in the House of Recovery. To which are added, Observations on the Nature and Properties of Contagion, tending to correct the popular Notions on this Subject, and pointing out the Means of Prevention. By Thomas Bateman, M.D. &c. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

This is a work which is, on every account, calculated to excite attention. The topic is indeed at all times extremely important, but is at this moment rendered peculiarly interesting by the alarming epidemic which still exists in the metropolis and many of our larger provincial towns; and no person can be better qualified than Dr. Bateman to make a report of it, because he has held for 14 years the office of sole medical superintendant of the House of Recovery for the reception of fever-patients. Besides the motives of a more obvious nature, which might naturally be supposed to influence Dr. B. in wishing to leave an authentic history of a disease with which he has had so many opportunities of becoming thoroughly acquainted, he observes that it appears to him 'to be worthy of record, as it exhibits very distinctly a specimen of the common form, and of the common varieties, which the infectious fever has assumed in this country for many years past; and which is likely to continue, under our improved and improving system of domestic œconomy, to be the ordinary fever of our island.' The theory implied in this sentence, that the infectious fevers which have, at various successive periods, invaded the inhabitants of this country, have been really identical, — and that the differences observed in their symptoms and their degrees of virulence have depended on the changes in our habits and manners, and on the means of prevention or cure which have been adopted, — is afterward more fully maintained and developed.

The essay is divided into five sections; of which the first is introductory, the second treats on the proper denomination to be given to the disease under consideration, the third contains a description of its characters and its varieties, the fourth relates to the method of treatment, and the fifth consists of the author's doctrines on the subject of contagion. We propose to abstract, as briefly as we can, some of the most important positions maintained on these various topics.

Dr. Bateman begins by noticing the connection between scarcity of food and epidemic fever; which appears to be so uniform that we are justified in regarding the former as the cause of the latter. That fever is not generated by the mere accumulation of the putrid effluvia from decomposed animal matter appears to be proved by the most decisive evidence; though, at the same time, this is probably to be regarded as a powerful circumstance in multiplying and fostering it when once produced. The other accessory circumstances, some of which are perhaps still most powerful, are want of personal and domestic cleanliness, and crowded habitations without proper ventilation. Indeed it may be presumed that the effluvia from the animal body, when suffered to accumulate and become concentrated, are supposed by Dr. Bateman to be adequate to the actual production of fever, since we meet with the following remark in the note in which he expresses his dissent from the doctrine of the creation of the disease by mere putrid effluvia: 'The morbid and even natural effluvia of the living body, when allowed to accumulate by want of cleanliness and air, are unquestionably common sources of fever.' According to the opinion here maintained, that certain extraneous causes, in the first instance, generate fever, it follows as a natural consequence that this cause continues to originate in many successive individuals, independently of each other; although these individuals have the power of communicating the disease by contagion, the generation of which is a consequence of the febrile action. The fact that, even during the prevalence of an infectious epidemic fever, the disease is propagated in many instances by the same causes which originally produced the contagion, is supposed by the author to be proved beyond contradiction: but, at the same time, nothing is conceived to be more irreconcileable to our constant observation than the opinion lately broached by Dr. Maclean *, that contagion is never the cause of epidemic diseases. Although in this case no specific contagious matter is produced, (as in small pox and measles,) the morbid exhalations and secretions, when accumulated about the person or clothes of the patient, generate a medium of infection almost equally active.

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* See an account of Dr. M.'s publication in the *Catalogue* of this Number, class *Medicine*, p. 96.

With respect to the denomination of the disease, Dr. Bateman gives it as his decided opinion that all the epidemic contagious fevers of this country are the same generic disease, modified by external circumstances; and differing from each other no more than the varieties of the small pox or of other affections, concerning the absolute identity of which no doubt is ever entertained. Of the three genera retained by Cullen, it is now admitted that synocha never exists as an independent disease; and that synochus is no more than a variety, between which and typhus it is impossible to draw a positive line of distinction. The name of typhus, having been very generally applied to the infectious fever of this country, may be still retained as arbitrarily indicating a certain train of symptoms, without any regard to its origin or mode of action.

Although, however, we conceive the disease to be always of the same species, still it exhibits well marked varieties, which necessarily lead to some arrangement or classification. The one that has been generally adopted since the time of Cullen, of *mitia* and *gravior*, as indicating merely a difference in degree, is supposed to be useless, or even incorrect; and in its stead is employed that which was introduced or at least much recommended by Dr. Armstrong, of simple typhus and inflammatory typhus: 'in the course of which some one or more of the important organs become signally diseased, suffering from inflammation.' Dr. Bateman still farther pursues the method of Dr. Armstrong in subdividing the inflammatory typhus into acute and sub-acute; a distinction, however, which appears to us to be simply one of degree, and therefore liable to all the objections that attach to an arrangement of this description. Dr. Armstrong's third subdivision of typhus, which he denominates congestive, is conceived by Dr. Bateman to be of more hypothetical character, or at least of rare occurrence and doubtful existence.

We have next a detailed account of the two varieties of typhus, the simple, and the complicated or inflammatory; in the designation of which latter, however, the author in some degree falls into the error which he has reprobated in Cullen, since he intitles it 'the *more severe* and complicated typhus.' We have not space to follow Dr. B. through these details, though they in fact form the most valuable part of the work: but it will be sufficient for us to point out their merit, and recommend them to the especial attention of our medical readers. Still, we must notice a few of those circumstances in which the author's opinions are original, or materially differ from those of preceding writers. Among these we may reckon his observation on the temperature of the body in typhus, which was seldom found to be increased beyond the ordinary standard of health, except in the febricola of children, a fact which would appear to be much at variance with the statements of Currie; who regarded the increase of temperature almost as the essence of the febrile action, and the reduction of this morbid temperature as the grand indication of cure which is to supersede almost every other remedy. Dr. Bateman expressly informs us that, in a very great majority of the cases which have been under his care, the heat has seldom exceeded 99° or 100°.

It would appear that the most constant and characteristic symptoms in simple typhus are a general prostration of strength, attended with pains in the head and still more in the limbs and trunk. The appearances which the tongue exhibits in typhus are usually made the object of minute attention by the practitioner: but Dr. B. informs us that he has 'never been able to trace a decided connection between them and any particular condition of the *primæ viæ*;' we only learn that a return to a natural from a morbid state, whatever that state has been, is favourable; and that it is esteemed favourable when the tongue is less affected than we might have supposed from the violence of the other symptoms. Under all the modifications of fever, the skin remains dry; and 'no distinct humidity' is perceptible at the decline of the disease in a large majority of the cases; in 19 only out of 678, did any thing appear like a *critical* diaphoresis, that is, where the symptoms immediately subsided on the occurrence of the perspiration.

The typhus-fever in this simple form cannot be regarded as a dangerous disease; because, by the mere removal of the extraneous circumstances which are unfavourable to the re-establishment of health, the powers of the constitution appear to be generally sufficient to effect a cure: but the result is very different in the complicated typhus. This second variety of the disease, which fell under Dr. Bateman's inspection, 'approximates very closely to the *slow nervous fever*, so accurately depicted by Dr. Huxham; a fever which manifestly differs from the *putrid pestilential fever*, described by the same able author, only in the less violence of its symptoms, and its more protracted course.' It is stated that, during the first ten days of the complaint, the symptoms were not materially different, in the cases which afterward became of the kind that is placed in the second class, from those of the first. At this period, an increase of the general diminution of the vital powers was very perceptible, and of all those which have usually been regarded as indications of a deranged condition of the nervous functions: but it would appear that the putrid or malignant symptoms, as they have been commonly styled, scarcely ever occurred in the House of Recovery. Among 678 patients, two only had extensive ecchymoses or vibices: but even here the state was rather indicative of a failure in the powers of the circulating system, than of any change in the nature of the constituents of the body, or any tendency to their decomposition.

These two cases, Dr. Bateman remarks, belong to the variety which Dr. Armstrong has hypothetically called *congestive*. It is admitted that they are 'referable to a state of venous congestion, with feeble or oppressed action of the heart and arteries:' but it is conceived that the denomination is not appropriate, because the symptoms in question come on at a late period of the disease, and cannot be regarded as a mere prolongation of the first or congestive stage of the disease, which has not been followed by the stage of excitement. Perhaps this objection to the term may be rather hypercritical, if we admit that congestion does actually exist, and the existence of this state is very unequivocally admitted by Dr. Bateman. To this cause, indeed, we must refer the undue 'determination of blood' to several organs, the brain, the intestines, the liver, &c. which was a frequent occurrence in this variety of typhus; if not even a constant attendant on it, and imparting its specific characters to it. We are indeed disposed to think that the term *congestive* is altogether more appropriate and less hypothetical than that of *inflammatory*; for we apprehend that the only change in the state of the sanguiferous vessels, of which we have any direct evidence, consists in some of them, and most probably the veins of certain parts, containing an increased quantity of blood. Dr. Armstrong's subdivision of acute and sub-acute inflammation might perhaps be more correctly designated as inflammatory and congestive. It is remarked that, towards the decline of the disease, decided symptoms of local inflammation were occasionally observable; with rheumatic affections of the limbs, erysipelas of the face and head, ulcers in various parts of the body, &c.

After the description of the epidemic fever as it has prevailed in the metropolis during the last 18 months, the author informs us that it may be regarded as a specimen of the kind of typhus which has 'exclusively been observed by the practitioners of this country for the last 30 years;' essentially differing in its *character* from the putrid fever of Sydenham and Huxham, which now no longer exists; yet that it is in fact the same disease, stripped of its malignancy by a change in our domestic habits and general modes of life. This section concludes with some curious documents respecting the average mortality of the typhus-fever. In general, we can have no doubt that it has greatly diminished in this country during the last century: but so many circumstances are to be taken into the account, that it is scarcely possible to form any correct estimate on this point.

Section 4., on the method of treatment, occupies nearly one third of the volume, and cannot be studied with too much attention. Notwithstanding the great reform that has taken place since the errors of the humoralists, and the still more fatal practice of the Brunonians, Dr. Bateman remarks that we have not yet overcome all our terrors of debility, and we still have recourse to our stimulants, although in less formidable doses. These, however, except in a very few instances, and in the later stages, are to be entirely discarded: we are to commence with an emetic of ipecacuanha; then to administer a purgative; and afterward, if the occasion requires, proceed to blood-letting, and employ cold drinks and external cold through every period of the disease. Dr. Bateman has not, however, found the use of the cold affusion, as recommended by Currie, to answer the expectations that were raised in its favour: it is often difficult to put in practice; it did not apparently abridge the disease; and it would appear that cold washing of the skin is generally a more effectual remedy. Dr. B.'s remarks on blood-letting are so peculiarly candid and judicious, that they deserve the utmost attention of all those who are anxious to acquire the most correct judgment on this very important and much controverted question. 'No appearance of languor or debility,' as it is very forcibly and correctly stated, 'should induce a disposition to swerve from a steady pursuit of the antiphlogistic plan, in diet, regimen, and medicine.' Through the whole progress of the disease, except in some cases towards its termination, Dr. Bateman enjoins that, whatever may be the appearance of debility, 'the administration of camphor, ethereal fluids, aromatic confection, and every description of cordial or tonic, and more especially the cinchona, should be religiously avoided.' The opposite treatment has, we firmly believe, produced those very symptoms of malignancy which the bark and wine were supposed to be necessary to correct. All those appearances which depend on a morbid condition of the nervous system, and which have usually been attributed to debility, are with much more propriety referred to the effect of congestion, and consequent irritation of the brain or its appendages; and we are confident that every person, who has fairly made the comparison between the antiphlogistic and the stimulating treatment, will be convinced that the practice bears out the theory.

There is indeed one, and (we think) only one, condition of fever in which wine and stimulants are admissible; the 'state of sudden collapse' which occasionally occurs in old persons that have been long labouring under the disease. The state of the skin and the pulse, the temperature, and the sensations of the patient, sufficiently indicate the distinction between this sinking of the vital powers and the irritation which usually attends the febrile action. Dr. Bateman, though so decided an advocate for the antiphlogistic treatment, goes a little farther in his allowance of wine; he admits that it may be given, 'provided the tongue be not parched, the skin be soft and moist, and the pulse open and fluent,' where those symptoms exist which are usually supposed to indicate debility. We believe that a little wine may not, in these cases, be very injurious: but even here we doubt whether it be necessary. With respect to bark, we fully agree with Dr. B. in the wish 'that this substance were erased for ever from the catalogue of medicines employed for the cure of this disease.' An exception is indeed afterward made in favour of 'the lingering debility, occasioned by gangrenous ulcerations, sloughing sores, or slow suppurations, where the cinchona becomes a valuable remedy;' and this exception is probably well founded: but it may be observed that this lingering debility, and these gangrenous ulcerations, are always the consequence of previous neglect or mismanagement.

Many important points are discussed in the fifth section, on contagion, which we regret that our limits will not permit us to specify farther than by a general reference. The most material of these points respects the distance to which the contagion of typhus is capable of being conveyed by the atmosphere; a distance which Dr. Bateman conceives is much less than we commonly suspect, never perhaps extending more than a few feet from the source where it is generated or accumulated, provided that free access to fresh air is admitted. In proof of this very important practical position, facts are cited from the works of Russel, Mertens, and others, respecting the Plague, as well as from Lind and Haygarth respecting fevers generally; and from the very curious experiments of O'Ryan of Lyons on the contagion of small-pox. From these and other facts of a similar tendency, Dr. Bateman draws the conclusion 'that infection cannot be caught in the open air, even by a close approximation to the most tainte sources of it, the uncleansed person and contaminated appar of the sick: in short, that, to be rendered communicable, i must be condensed and accumulated in a confined and unchanged atmosphere; or in the apparel or bedding, which ha been long in contact with the patient.' — With this remark we must terminate our account of Dr. Bateman's very valuable performance. As to its general character, the precedin remarks will manifest that we consider it as a work whic ought to be attentively studied by every man who wishes t make himself acquainted with the practice or pathology o fever. Indeed, we have very seldom read a medical treatise of the same bulk in which we have met with more to commend and less to censure.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1818.

MEDICINE.

Art. 12. *Suggestions for the Prevention and Mitigation of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases;* comprehending the Abolition of Quarantines and Lazarettos: with some opportune Remark upon the Danger of Pestilence from Scarcity. Intended to serve as an Introduction to a Work, entitled *Researches* i *Turkey*, concerning the Plague, &c. By Charles Maclean, M.D &c. 8vo. pp. 106. 3s. Underwood.

This pamphlet has rather an ambiguous appearance, so th we were somewhat at a loss under what character it should b viewed. By the frequent reference which is made, in the titl page and elsewhere, to a larger work which the author inten soon to publish *, and by the promises and pretensions which a ostentatiously made of the extent and importance of its content we felt at first disposed to regard this precursory treatise little better than an advertisement of the writer and his book: — but it would be uncharitable to form a hasty and decided opini on this point; and therefore, although the course which Dr. has pursued be somewhat unusual and irregular, yet, if he succee in throwing any considerable degree of light on the topics whic he proposes to discuss, we shall give him not only our pardon b our gratitude. The means which he has enjoyed for obtaining in formation are peculiarly favourable, for we are told that he ha the opportunity of 'investigating the Plague, and treating cases o that malady, in the Greek hospital, near the Seven Towers, a Constantinople;' and he himself had an attack of the disease so that he may be intitled to speak with a degree of confidenc which could be allowed to very few persons. The result of hi actual experience is a firm conviction that the notions generall entertained respecting the cause of pestilential and epidemic diseases of all kinds, 'not only have the effect, by augmenting terror, and diminishing, or rendering precarious the means of subsistence, and the attendance upon the sick, of increasing, in an almost incredible ratio, mortality and disease; but are, in many other respects, productive of extensively injurious consequences to the best interests of mankind. And, what may be regarded as still more singular and extraordinary, these influential opinions are not only palpably erroneous, but of fraudulent origin, and of modern date.'

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* We have just seen this work advertized.

The main point, to which Dr. M. alludes in this passage, respects the non-contagious nature of the plague and other similar diseases: but, for the arguments by which this opinion is to be supported, we are referred to the larger work, already mentioned. Assuming, however, for the present, that the reasoning there employed is such as must ensure conviction, he gives us a list of the various inferences that are to be made from it, including a number of most important practical points; of which it will be sufficient to quote the four following, to prove the confidence of the author in his powers, and the greatness of the object at which he aspires.

'8. An efficient method of cure is ascertained.

'9. It is assumed that a million of persons die annually of epidemic diseases throughout the world.

'10. Of this mortality, it is computed that fifteen-sixteenths are occasioned by the consequences of the belief in contagion; the absence of the means of prevention, which depend upon a knowledge of the cause; and the want of an efficient method of cure.

'11. Consequently, the result of the general renunciation of this belief; of the general adoption of proper means of alleviation and prevention; and of the general application of an efficient method of cure; would be to save fifteen-sixteenths of a million, or 937,500 lives, annually, throughout the world: reducing the mortality from a million to 62,500, or one-sixteenth.'

Dr. M.'s professed object in the present pamphlet is less extensive and momentous, and more within the limits of our comprehension.

'That contagion is the cause of epidemic diseases, being, for the sake of the argument, admitted, the object, at present, is to shew, that the measures of plague-police, enforced to prevent their spreading, are, upon that supposition, not only detrimental, but almost certainly destructive to the sick; without being necessary, or even conducive, to the safety of those in health.'

With a view to the establishment of the above position, the author proceeds to describe the different kinds of quarantine regulations, as established by various acts of parliament and orders in council; to point out the hardships to which persons are unnecessarily exposed, the loss of property which they experience, and the serious impediments thrown in the way of commerce; and all these managed with so little judgment, and on such erroneous principles, as not to hold out any rational compensation for the evils which they necessarily inflict on those who fall under their power. In this part of the pamphlet we find some good observations, and some interesting deductions from various historical documents; which lead to the conclusion that the ravages of the various pestilential diseases, that have prevailed at different periods, have been aggravated rather than diminished by the systems of medical police adopted by the several European governments.

'That contagion could have had no share in the production of any of these pestilences, is evident, both upon the principle, which shall be elucidated in my "Researches," that "diseases which depend upon contagion never arise from other sources; and that diseases which arise from other sources never depend upon contagion;" and from the acknowledged inefficiency of all the measures that have been adopted for checking the progress of epidemic maladies.'

The latter part of the treatise before us is particularly devoted to the object of pointing out the great impediments which are thrown in the way of commerce by the present system, and the great expence which it necessarily entails on the country. On these points no one can doubt; and if the author be only able to establish the leading doctrine which is to be the great topic of 'the large work,' every one will agree with him in his conclusion that quarantines and lazarettos are extremely injurious, and ought to be abolished. To this promised publication we look forwards with a degree of interest, mixed however with a certain feeling of awe; since we learn by an advertisement affixed to this pamphlet that it is to consist of *four* 8*vo. volumes*: — though the recent annunciation in the news-papers mentions only *two* volumes.

Art. 13. *An Essay on the Disorders of Old Age*, and on the Means for prolonging Human Life. By Anthony Carlisle, F.R.S. F.S.A. F.L.S., &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 103. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Mr. Carlisle has chosen an interesting topic, and one which we do not recollect ever to have seen treated in a suitable manner. It involves a great number of important considerations on physiology and pathology, and requires not only a large share of practical knowlege, but an attention to a variety of minute details. Mr. Carlisle's character as a man of science is held in a considerable degree of estimation; and, when we perceived the work announced among the recent publications, we felt anxious to peruse it, expecting to receive both amusement and instruction. We must, however, confess that the first sight of it rather damped our ardour. Although the paper is of the regular and ordinary octavo dimensions, the type is unusually scanty; containing perhaps not more than a third of the quantity of matter which is generally included in a fairly printed page. Still it occurred to us that this large and open type might be intended for *old eyes*; and, determining therefore not to quarrel with the author on this account, we entered on the examination of his pages with the hope that their shortness might be compensated by their excellence. We are concerned to report that we did not find this to be the case; so that, short as the essay appeared when we began to peruse it, we felt that it was too long before we arrived at the conclusion.

Having consumed about a quarter of his limited space in general and trite observations, Mr. C. arrives at something that looks more like the proper subject of the work; and this is ushered in by the following observation:

'This brief contribution of general suggestions, respecting the medical treatment of old persons, is but a specimen and small fragment of my professional collections; it is, however, sanctioned by experience, and composed under some peculiar advantages, at a mature age.'

The author then goes on to state that the most numerous tribe of disorders, incident to advanced life, depend on the failure of the digestive organs; a fact which we believe to be undeniable, and whence we are led to consider what are the best means of obviating this defect. The remainder of the volume is almost entirely occupied with directions about the diet, most of which are sufficiently correct, and perhaps very few of them positively injudicious or objectionable: but many are trifling, and the whole are common-place. The ensuing may be taken as a specimen.

'The substances selected for the diet of old persons, and the cookery of their food, should be adapted to the state of their teeth; and solid viands, or those kinds which are difficult of solution, should be minced, bruised, or otherwise prepared to meet the defects of the chewing instruments.

'In addition to the gradual failure of the teeth, the stomach itself suffers a diminution of it's powers to convert food into the raw fluid material for bodily replenishment; and hence it becomes needful to be more choice and particular about the diet in advanced years.'

We may inform our readers, by the way, that the above quotation is equal to one of Mr. Carlisle's pages.—We are then carried through the *materia alimentaria*, and have the respective merits of the individual articles of diet discussed and decided; whether roast or boiled meat be preferable; whether mutton or beef, fish or fowl. A quotation may be proper from this preceptive part.

'The vegetable additions to dinner ought to be of the softer or farinaceous kinds, such as green pease, asparagus, cauliflower, beans, mealy potatoes, and rice, or simply dressed macaroni. Cabbage and brocoli are coarse and offensive, unless when boiled in two successive waters and rendered bland. This process of twice boiling frees the cabbage-tribe from noxious matter, which occasions flatulencies and other unhealthy effects.

'Carrots are better reduced to a pulp, and turnips should be free from woody fibres. Spinach should be treated in the French manner, by pressing it's pulp through a hair sieve, and with the addition of spicy seasoning. Onions, and roots of that sort, contain acrimonious juices, and are in no way nutritious.'

We do not consider it as necessary to dwell longer on this work:

it is indeed too trifling for a detailed critique; and, had it not been sanctioned by a respectable name, we should have dismissed it with a still shorter notice.

POLITICS.

Art. 14. *The Principles of Population and Production*, as they are affected by the Progress of Society; with a View to Moral and Political Consequences. By John Weyland, jun. Esq. F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 493. 14s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

After having published several small tracts on the poor-laws, and other insulated departments of national economy, Mr. Weyland has ventured in the present volume to take a wider range, and to discuss several of the higher and more difficult questions connected with productive industry and the welfare of nations. His work is divided into three parts, which treat respectively of

I. Progress of Society, with its Effects on the Principle of Population. — II. Political Consequences deducible from the Principles of this Treatise. — III. Moral Consequences deducible from the Principles of this Treatise.

Nothing can be more commendable than the general scope of Mr. W.'s arguments, and particularly the course of reasoning by which he establishes the connection between morality in our means and success in our objects. He applies this connection to his subject, by shewing the proportion maintained between population and subsistence in every gradation through which society passes; for in no period, he says, will a tolerably virtuous and well governed population press perniciously on the stock of subsistence derived from its native soil. He next explains the means by which the preserving principle, inherent in the progress of population, is kept alive by the influence of religion, morality, and rational liberty; and his conclusion is that the free exercise of all the virtues commanded in Scripture, and of all the moral obligations to be deduced from an enlightened conscience, are directly compatible with the progress of population.

Gladly would we add that the execution of the treatise is on a par with these conceptions, and that an author, so replete with commendable feelings, is equally skilful in the exposition of his arguments: but Mr. W. forms no exception to the long list of unsuccessful writers on political economy; his matter is loose; his style is prolix; and his reasoning is seldom brought to a clear point. Though his volume may be purchased by the grave inquirers into such questions, and placed on a library-shelf for occasional reference, we see no chance of its obtaining that general circulation which the author, in the ardour of his public spirit, evidently anticipates. He has done well to divide it into a number of short chapters, and to prefix a very explicit and circumstantial table of contents: but to give attraction to the work would require a new-modelling of the composition, with a view, above all, to the condensation of the reasoning. Writers on national economy should refer to the well known work of M. Say; which, though comprehending the science at large, was originally given to the world in two moderate 8vo. volumes, and has since been but little increased, though materially altered, and now arrived at a third edition.

Art. 15. *An Essay on the Question of reducing the Interest of the National Debt;* in which the Justice and Expediency of that Measure are fully Established. By R. M'Culloch, Esq. Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 213. 6s. Boards. Underwood.

We have found this essay more comprehensive in its object and reasoning than the title implied; for it is a general disquisition on the principles of money and exchange, followed by an inquiry into the rise of prices throughout Europe since 1775, and a series of arguments against our corn-laws. From these and other considerations, the author urges the propriety of obliging the Bank to resume cash-payments; and it is only in the sixth and last section of the book that he arrives at his professed object, the reduction of the interest of our national debt. One of the most attractive topics is the inquiry into the rise of prices throughout Europe; which leads the author to advert to the increasing produce of the American mines, and to argue that it is balanced by an equal augmentation in the demand for the precious metals, whether for the purpose of trade or of ornament. Mr. M'C. then proceeds to make a series of observations on the increase of the wealth and productive industry of different countries, — the United States, France, Spain, Italy, Germany, Poland, Russia; — from all of which he concludes that the supply of precious metals, now necessary for commercial and ornamental purposes, is much greater than it was formerly; and that the depreciation of money in Great Britain during the last twenty years has been owing to an overissue of bank-paper, in conjunction with the operation of the corn-laws. We must refrain from enlarging on this and other equally intricate topics discussed in the essay; and, while we give the author credit for a considerable extent of reading on political economy, we must regret that he was not more fully sensible of the care which is necessary to impart an attractive form to such disquisitions; or, which is of more importance still, to exhibit his reasoning in so finished a shape as to leave little room for the attack of an antagonist. In its present state, his essay is crude in composition, and liable to various objections on the score of argument; the consequence not of deficient talent, but of the author having looked at only one side of the question, and writing as if unconscious of the multiplied ramifications of inquiry demanded by a thorough investigation. We subscribe, however, without hesitation, to the concluding sentence of his book:

'Considering the dangerous competition in every species of manufactures, to which a continuance of peace will undoubtedly expose us, we must be convinced, that all the measures now proposed for the reduction of taxation — for relieving the industrious classes, from whom alone the country has derived all its power and glory, and by whom it must be supported — are *essentially necessary:* and that their principal and radical defect consists in their not going *far enough.*'

Art.

Art. 16. *The Cries of the People:* addressed to the King, the Ministry, the Marshals, the Peers, the Representatives, the Magistrates, and the French Nation. By Alexander Crevel, Author of a philosophic Essay on the important Art of governing a State; of the *Medecine Politique*, &c. &c. Translated from the Original. 8vo. pp. 103. 3s. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

This publication has obtained, during the summer, a considerable circulation in France, not from its being written with ability, but from the correspondence of its language with the disposition to complain that has been engendered throughout that country by a long succession of public misfortunes. The return of Bonaparte from Elba was the signal for suspending commercial enterprize (or, to speak more generally, productive industry) in France, in a vast variety of branches; the merchants forebore to export; the retailer found no sale for his goods; and the lower orders were in many cases thrown out of work. Next came the second invasion of the allies, and the imposition of contributions and new taxes, together with the discredit of the public stocks, particularly of a mass of unfunded debt; which could not, for a long time, be settled without an immense sacrifice. A work which professed to discover the cause of these misfortunes, and which ventured (p. 24.) to charge them on government, could scarcely fail to find readers: but the author has been less successful in acquiring reputation, since he writes without method or dignity; dealing largely in loose assertion and inflated language, and discovering a total want of sequence in his reasoning or arrangement in his materials. In point of political spirit, he is fully as much an anti-Anglican as an anti-royalist. He has lately been made to pay rather smartly for his ebullitions, having been sentenced to fine and imprisonment by a court of justice at Paris, partly for the libellous nature of this pamphlet, and partly for his presumptuous tone before the judges.—The translation is nearly on a par with the original, and presents us with various inelegant phrases.

Art. 17. *Observations on the Circumstances which influence the Condition of the Labouring Classes of Society.* By John Barton. 8vo. pp. 90. Arch. 1817.

We have here a grave treatise on topics of considerable interest and difficulty, viz. the effect of increasing wealth on the demand for labour; of a rise of wages on population; of taxation on the condition of the poor; on the operation of the poor-laws, and on the propriety of their abolition. Mr. Barton is evidently familiar with the best writers on these subjects: but it would much exceed our limits, and (we fear) tire the patience of our readers, to exhibit a digest of his various arguments; the reasoning being not a little complicated, and the subject possessing attraction for those only who make a study of it. Mr. B. seems fond of calculation: but we cannot help cautioning him against the adoption of unauthorized assertions, such as (p. 40.) that *Spain enjoyed extraordinary prosperity for some time after the discovery of the American mines, and that she possessed a* population of 15 millions so far back as the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella. The part of the present pamphlet, which is most likely to fix the attention of the current reader, is its tabular statements, several of which are very interesting: we extract the following:

Statement shewing the Proportion of the Wages of the Country Labourer to the Price of Corn.

Periods.	Weekly Pay.	Wheat per Quarter.	Wages in Pints of Wheat.
1742 to 1752	6s.	30s.	102
1761 to 1770	7s. 6d.	42s. 6d.	90
1780 to 1790	8s.	51s. 2d.	80
1795 to 1799	9s.	70s. 8d.	65
1800 to 1808	11s.	86s. 8d.	60

Table shewing the Progressive Decrease of Deaths in Great Britain since 1785; owing to the greater Sobriety and Comfort of the Poor.

From 1785 to 1789 -	1 in 436	From 1795 to 1799 -	1 in 465
1790 to 1794 -	1 in 447	1800 to 1804 -	1 in 474

The increase of our population does not appear to have been accompanied by an increased proportion of marriages:

From 1780 to 1789, marriages, compared to the whole population, were as - - - 1 in 117
1790 to 1799 Ditto Ditto 1 in 119½
1800 to 1809 Ditto Ditto 1 in 119½

Table of the Annual Expenditure for the Poor, computed with a Reference to the Price of Corn.

	Average price of Wheat.	Expended on the Poor.	Forming a Charge per Head on the whole Population of the Kingdom.
From 1772 to 1776	48s. 2d.	£1,556,804	44 pints of wheat
1781 to 1785	49s. 2d.	2,004,238	53 Ditto
1799 to 1803	84s. 8d.	4,267,965	54½ Ditto
1811 to 1815	93s. 2d.	5,072,028	50 Ditto

This calculation puts the question of our burdens on account of the poor in a different light from that in which it is generally viewed, exhibiting even a decrease in the amount of charge for the last year: which is owing to two important circumstances, viz. the very considerable increase of population, which has the effect of reducing the charge per head, and the less satisfactory fact that the enhanced price of wheat makes an equal quantity of that article equivalent to a much larger sum of money.

Progressive Increase of Population, Trade, and Taxes, in the 21 Years from 1790 to 1810, compared with the 23 Years immediately before 1790.

Population - -	27¼ per cent.
Foreign Trade - -	96½ Ditto
Taxes and loans - -	212¼ Ditto

Mr. B. concludes his tract by a few remarks on Friendly Societies: maintaining that these associations are in general better managed than many persons suppose; and that the late proposition of a committee of the House of Commons, to make good any deficiency in their funds out of the parish-assessments, would be attended with very unfortunate consequences.—The want of a table of contents, and of a subdivision into chapters, much impairs the perspicuity of this useful pamphlet.

Art. 18. *The Rights of Property vindicated*, against the Claims of Universal Suffrage; with an Analysis of the Principle of Property, and New Views of Constitutional Interest and General Policy. By Robert Fellowes, A.M. Oxon. 8vo. pp. 160. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1818.

Mr. Fellowes is well known as a rapid writer, and has introduced a great variety of matter into the tract before us. He begins by arguing that universal suffrage is not the right of the people; and that, far from fulfilling the objects promised by its advocates, the result would be that, the greater the number of constituents, the fewer would be the virtual managers of the national representation. Universal suffrage would not improve the condition of the labourer, nor augment his wages, but it would (according to Mr. F.) engender the two most obnoxious extremes of aristocracy on the one hand and democracy on the other. That the public, however, may not regard Mr. Fellowes as adverse to reform *in toto*, he expresses, in his concluding chapter, a wish to see the representation of decayed boroughs transferred to populous places which at present have no members; he adds also various remarks as to enforcing a more punctual attendance in parliament, and rendering that an efficient duty which at present is little more than a sinecure.—His tract discovers in particular passages (pp. 135, 136.) a considerable range of reading and observation; while in others (pp. 38. 49.) it is marked by sanguine assertions, which must be deemed at variance with sound and accurate conclusions. How can he consider national debt as a public benefit, and gravely allege that it has caused such a developement of the productive powers of the country as would not otherwise have been seen? Mr. Colquhoun appeared to us in 1815 rather more than sufficiently sanguine in his treatise on the wealth and resources of our empire, and the years which have intervened since the publication of that book have certainly not been years of prosperity; yet Mr. F. recapitulates the whole (pp. 48, 49.) without hesitation, and draws from these magnificent statements the comfortable inference that our public burdens are so small, when compared to our wealth, that they ought not for a moment to create serious alarm.

The fault of Mr. F. as a political writer lies not in deficiency of research, or in the want of liberal views, but apparently in an habitual impatience, which appears to urge him from one topic to another, and occasionally disfigures his style by the unavoidable consequences of haste.

Art. 19. *Observations on the Impolicy of permitting the Exportation of British Wool*, and of preventing the free Importation of Foreign

reign Wool. By John Maitland, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 68. W. Phillips. 1818.

The distress experienced two years ago by our agriculturists led to an animated contest between two opposite interests, with regard to the laws which regulate the wool-trade; one party, viz. the wool-growers, contending that a duty ought to be laid on foreign wool for the purpose of raising the price of English wool; while their opponents, the woollen manufacturers, maintained that it would be a most mistaken policy to enhance, in any manner, a raw material which afforded subsistence to so many hundred thousands of the lower orders. The leading advocate of the wool-growers, on this as on other occasions, is Lord Sheffield; whose long periodical reports on the price of wool, in the columns of our news-papers, must have attracted the attention of many of our readers. The quantity of wool grown on an average in England is 144,000,000lbs.; two-thirds of which consist of short clothing wool, and one-third of a much more valuable kind, called long combing wool; and the latter has, it seems, never been produced on the continent, of a quality equal to our's, except in some small districts in Flanders. The ordinary length of the staple of foreign wool is about two inches; that of our long combing, from five to seven inches. Without the latter, the continental manufacturers cannot equal us in the stuff-goods and others made from fine worsted; and hence the importance, say our woollen manufacturers, of keeping the law as it stands; that is, not only of receiving foreign wool but of preventing the export of our long wool: since it is asserted (p. 10.) that the manufacturers in Germany and Flanders declare that, when one pack of our long combing wool falls in their way, they can at once work up two or more packs of their own wool into the cloth desired by their countrymen.

Mr. Maitland refers to a remarkable investigation that took place about the year 1789, when samples were collected by desire of his Majesty from Germany, for the purpose of ascertaining how far their qualities corresponded with the different wools grown in England: the result was highly satisfactory, and shewed that our wool was superior in every case, with the exception of two of the samples, the product of Spanish Merinos, domiciliated some time before in Saxony. From this and other considerations, Mr. M. takes a decided part against Lord Sheffield and the advocates for a tax on foreign wool; alleging that, if our landholders knew their own interest, they would not hesitate to give (p. 5.) an unlimited encouragement to the import of all wool, duty free, into this country; under the assurance that the increased number and comfort of our manufacturers would occasion a great additional demand for the productions of our soil, amply compensating both landholder and farmer for any partial reduction in the price of his wool. Government has chosen to steer a middle course between these contending interests; leaving the law as it stands, and declining to take any step that would augment the price of the raw commodity. In short, nothing can be clearer than that, in this as in other branches of productive industry, our true policy is to leave things to find their own level.

Having thus briefly stated the merits of the question, it remains merely to advert to the very defective specimens of composition exhibited by the literary combatants; Lord Sheffield introducing into the body of his arguments a variety of minutiæ, such as Spanish Ryland Cross fetching at a particular fair so many farthings more than at another; while Mr. Maitland, determined to surpass his noble opponent in prolixity if not in detail, has taken above 30 pages to convey what might easily have been expressed in half-a-dozen.

RELIGIOUS CONTROVERSY *and* SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 20. "*All The Counsel of God:*" A Word in Opposition to Fanatical, Calvinistic, and Solifidian Views of Christianity; in a farewell Sermon, preached to the Congregation of St. James's Church, Bath, 23d March, 1817; by the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of that Parish for Twenty-two Years. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

Art. 21. *A Letter to the Rev. Richard Warner*, late Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath; a Word in reply to his farewell Sermon to the Congregation of St. James's Church, Bath. By Thomas Palmer, A.M. of Trinity College, Dublin. 8vo. 2s. Ogles, 1817.

Art. 22. *A "Word in Season" to a certain Mr. Thomas Palmer*, Solifidian, Calvinist, and Fanatic; in answer to his Letter to the Rev. R. Warner, on his farewell Sermon. By a plain Church and Bible Christian. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Art. 23. *The Doctrines called Calvinism examined, and compared with the Holy Scriptures*, in a Letter addressed to Mr. Thomas Palmer; in consequence of his Animadversions upon the farewell Sermon of the Rev. Richard Warner. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

Mr. Warner, the author of the first of these works and the subject of the other three, has for many years been a diligent labourer in the ecclesiastical vineyard in the parish of St. James at Bath; and, though we differ from him in some of his tenets, it gave us pleasure to find his praise-worthy toils at last rewarded with some of the good things which the church has to bestow. The farewell sermon, which he delivered on quitting his pastoral functions in that city, appears to have excited the indignation of those who are represented in the title-page as entertaining 'Fanatical, Calvinistic, and Solifidian views of Christianity;' and, of these persons, Mr. Palmer, of Trinity College, Dublin, has stepped forwards as the champion, in opposition to the pointed attack of Mr. W. We cannot, however, compliment Mr. P. by saying that he has either supported his own opinions or assailed those of his adversary with any force of argument, or any weight of scriptural proof. We are not the advocates of any sect, but act as impartial arbiters of all in their doctrinal dissensions and unchristian feuds: yet, without feeling any undue bias in favour of the Arminians,

minians, we can truly say that, when an Arminian and a Calvinist meet in the field of theological controversy, the former never fails to have the preponderance both of reason and of Scripture on his side. This will be particularly evident in the present dispute between Mr. Warner and Mr. Palmer; as well as between the latter and his antagonists, the 'Church and Bible Christian' and the 'Layman.' In the representations of Christianity by the three Arminians, we find the interests of virtue more strongly supported, and doctrines inculcated which are more in unison with the Divine attributes, than in the polemical jargon of the Calvinistical Mr. Palmer. This Mr. Palmer, indeed, is an Antinomian without a blush; for he tells us plainly that personal goodness has no connection with our future acceptance; that 'the righteousness of Emanuel' has obtained 'an abundant entrance into heaven' for those to whom it shall 'be imputed by sovereign grace;' and that 'even the law of God cannot demand a penny more.' P. 27. Such is the comfortable intelligence which Mr. Palmer announces to the profligate. They may obtain 'an abundant entrance into heaven' without a pennyworth of virtue or integrity! The 'Layman' has exposed the absurdity, not to say impiety, of Mr. Palmer's religious notions, with much perspicuity and good sense. The 'plain Church and Bible Christian' has treated Mr. Palmer rather roughly; and, in some instances, his language abounds with more *impurities* than we can tolerate either in a Christian or a gentleman; as when he alludes to Joanna Southcott, p. 16., and talks of the 'stinking fumes of Manichæan ordures,' &c.

Art. 24. *Considerations on the Doctrines of the Evangelical Clergy;* and on the probable Effects of Evangelical Preaching: a Sermon, preached at Frome, Somersetshire, June 2d, 1817, at the Visitation of the Rev. Charles Sandiford, Archdeacon of Wells. By the Rev. Richard Warner, Vicar of Norton-St.-Philips, Somerset; and Rector of Great Chalfield, Wilts. With an Introduction and Notes. 8vo. Longman and Co.

Mr. Warner passes a high panegyric on the pure lives, irreproachable morals, zealous charity, and devotional ardour of those ministers of the Established Church who are designated by the name of the *Evangelical Clergy:* but he adds that the religious system, which they so earnestly recommend, 'does not appear to harmonize with the tenor of the Gospel, nor with the principles of the Established Church.' The evangelical clergy seem principally to err in making *moral habits* a matter of subordinate consideration. We do not say that they actually preach *against* moral habits: but they certainly do so far deny their efficacy and importance, as greatly to depreciate them in the estimation of their own followers. If, therefore, their preaching be not directly immoral, it has, at least, an *immoral tendency.* Mr. Warner and other writers have incontrovertibly proved this fact; and what more is wanting to shew that *evangelical preaching* is totally opposite to the real unsophisticated *spirit* of the Gospel? If any one, whether *Christian or infidel,* will peruse the discourses of Jesus Christ *as they appear in the Evangelists,* he cannot, as far as he is sincere, refuse his assent to their *moral tendency:* but who can, for a moment, listen to the discourses of the evangelical preachers without being impressed with a consciousness of *their* tendency to weaken the foundations of morality, and to substitute a wild and delusive paroxysm of feeling for the sober activity and beneficent operations of virtue? If, then, the doctrine of Christ and that of the evangelical preachers have *opposite tendencies,* we need not say which ought to be preferred.

When Mr. Warner argues that the doctrine of the evangelical preachers is adverse to the principles of the Established Church, he should recollect that it is not easy to determine with any precision what are *the principles* of the Established Church. Are we to look for them in the thirty-nine articles? They, as Lord Chatham said, are Calvinistic. — Shall we seek them in the liturgy? That, as the same Lord Chatham observed, is Arminian. — Shall we search for their interpretation in the rites and ceremonies? Those, as the before-mentioned authority declared, are borrowed from the ordinances of the church of Rome.

Art. 25. *Faith: its Value, Nature, and proper Fruits,* according to the Scriptures: a Sermon. By the Rev. Richard Warner. 8vo. 6d. Longman and Co. 1818.

This discourse has been previously published in Mr. Warner's sermons on the Epistles and Gospels, (see our Number for Aug. 1817, p. 439.) but it is printed in its present form in order to procure for it a more extensive circulation. — As far as perverse and unscriptural notions of faith tend to relax the sense of moral obligation, we heartily wish success to the diffusion of every antidote to a poison which is so pernicious in its operations.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *Plurality of Worlds:* or Letters, Notes, and Memoranda, Philosophical and Critical, occasioned by "A Series of Discourses on the Christian Revelation, viewed in Connection with the Modern Astronomy, by Thomas Chalmers, D.D. 12mo. pp. 211. 5s. Boards. Maxwell. 1817.

This author's opinion of Dr. Chalmers's volume of discourses accords, in a great degree, with that which we expressed in our Number for September last, p. 68. (vol. lxxxiv.) In his estimation, it is 'a very poor and flimsy performance,' p. 2.; and the style is very appositely compared to '*gilt gingerbread,*' p. 209. There is a fashion in literature, as well as in other things; and this fashion often gives an extensive circulation, and a fugitive celebrity, to works which are totally destitute of any species of intellectual excellence. Some lucky coincidence with the humour of a party or the prejudices of a sect, or the impulsion of some prevailing sentiment, combined with more or less glitter in the ornaments or pomp in the style, will often procure a short-lived popularity for compositions, which are as deficient in ability as in taste. The "Discourses" of Dr. Chalmers have been puffed into a tumid consequence, but have already begun to shrink into their native *emptiness;* and they will soon leave scarcely a trace of the panegyric which they once received.

It does not appear that the present writer regards the discourses of Dr. Chalmers as likely to furnish any support to the cause of revealed truth, but rather views them as likely to weaken its credibility, and to excite doubts where none were previously entertained. Indeed, we agree with him that the extract which he has made from those discourses, at p. 49., has a stronger tendency to favour the cold conclusions of atheism than to establish that doctrine which so warmly cherishes the paternal administration of God. When Dr. Chalmers talks of its being within "the limits of chance and probability," that an event should occur which would "hurry on our globe towards the sun, or drag it to the outer regions of the planetary system, or give it a new axis of revolution," or "change the face of the ocean," &c. such language would be much more consistent in an infidel who deems this to be a neglected and fatherless world, than in a Christian, or even a theist whose mind is impressed with a vivid conviction of an overruling providence.

Dr. Chalmers, says the author, 'penetrates into the regions of conjecture and uncertainty to find arguments in support of revelation: — arguments which are, at least, unnecessary, and arguments that will not weigh down a feather in the estimation of a mathematical infidel.' (P. 52.)

'To the wild speculations of the modern astronomer, difficulties present themselves in every direction: but these are easily obviated by some new conjecture; and this new conjecture being engrafted upon some former one, and illustrated by geometrical lines and figures and demonstrations, passes among the multitude for rigid and infallible geometry. Had Dr. Chalmers been a real disciple of Lord Bacon, he would have proceeded more cautiously. Before he had admitted this visionary theory, he would have made sure of the first step of his argument, some first principle or proof, and from hence he might have proceeded, by analogy, to a more extensive field. He might have taken the nearest object in the regions above, and, having proved the moon to be a world, he might then have gone forward in his bold career. But that first link is wanting, and the whole is little better than a pleasing dream — an empty shadow — a *vox et nihil* — a speculation — the sportive phantom of a deluded imagination.' (P. 57.)

The above extract will shew not only that the author of these letters has formed a very low estimate of the mental powers of Dr. Chalmers, but that he does not cordially assent to the theory which he and wiser men entertain respecting a 'Plurality of Worlds.' He seems to consider the discoveries of the modern astronomy as only conjectural or visionary; and he says, pp. 166, 167., 'I humbly apprehend that the Bible alone is the criterion of what is true or false either in philosophy or theology, and was given for this important purpose.' We can, by no means, assent to this opinion: for, if we were to make 'the Bible alone the criterion of what is true or false in philosophy,' we should soon put a stop to the progress of science, and should excite a spirit of persecution similar to that which caused Galileo to be immured in the Inquisition for promulgating philosophical truths that were esteemed adverse to the Biblical criterion. Scriptural truth and physical truth have no necessary connection; and to make one the test of the other is to injure both. The Bible contains a rich treasure of moral knowlege; and, in this respect, it cannot be too attentively studied: but to regard it as a great reservoir of scientific information, or to make it furnish the sole criterion of scientific truth, is to divert it from its original purpose and its most valuable use. The advice of Lord Bacon on this subject merits the most attentive consideration:

"Let no man," says he, "upon a weak conceit of sobriety, or an ill-applied moderation, think, or maintain that a man can search too far, or be too well studied in the book of God's word, or in the book of God's works; divinity or philosophy; but rather *let men endeavour an endless progress or proficience in both: only let men beware that they apply both to charity, and not to swelling; to use and not to ostentation;* and again, that *they do not unwisely mingle or confound these learnings together.*" (*Advancement of Learning*, book i.)

Far from regarding this advice of the great Lord Bacon, the present author talks of the Bible containing 'the elements of all real knowledge human and divine.' (P. 173.) We know nothing more likely to bring the Bible into disregard, than to recommend it for excellences which it does not possess; and to set up pretensions in its favour for which scarcely a shadow of proof can be adduced. The Scriptures have no more relation to abstract science than abstract science has to the Scriptures. They have both separate and independent objects. The peculiar object of the Scriptures is human conduct, considered with reference to the will of the Deity, and to the future prospects of the individual. To study the Scriptures for the sake of moral improvement, therefore, and in order to impress our minds and hearts with the value of righteous habits above every other consideration, is to study them to the best purpose, and to convert to the noblest use the sentiments and examples which they contain: but to study them in order to solve an astronomical problem, or to try the truth of Sir Isaac Newton's *Principia* by any criterion which they can furnish, is not only to pervert the Scriptures but to misapply the understanding.

At p. 185. this author asserts that 'Literature and Science are more indebted to the influence of revealed religion than to any other source whatever.' After such an affirmation, we almost wondered that this learned Hutchinsonian did not proceed to point out to us the manner in which the art of printing was discovered by a careful perusal of St. Paul's epistles.

At p. 166., note, he says that he considers Parkhurst's 'Greek and Hebrew Lexicons as the best commentary on the Bible.'— Parkhurst had adopted the visions of the Hutchinsonians; who, in their turn, treated the followers of Sir Isaac Newton as visionaries. The truth of revealed religion, however, does not depend on the opinions which either party may adopt respecting a Plurality of Worlds. Revelation rests on its own peculiar evidence; and, as it can derive no support from the most splendid theories of astronomical science, so it cannot be weakened by the more narrowminded bigotry of those who consider this limited system as comprising the whole scheme of creation; and who view the stars in the firmament not as suns, or worlds, but only as so much vain glitter for the speculation of man, or for the ornament of the ethereal arch.

Our readers are probably acquainted with Fontenelle's treatise on a "Plurality of Worlds," from which the present author seems to have taken his title. They will find it mentioned in our xxxviith volume, N. S. p. 95.

Art. 27. *An Excursion to Windsor*, in July, 1810, through Battersea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Twickenham, Strawberry Hill, and Hampton Court; interspersed with Historical and Biographical Anecdotes, for the Improvement of the Rising Generation: with an Account of His Majesty's last Walks on the Terrace of Windsor Castle. Also a Sail down the River Medway, July, 1811, from Maidstone to Rochester, and from Rochester to the Nore, on the opening of the Oyster Beds. By John Evans, A.M. Islington. To which is annexed, A Journal of a Trip to Paris in the Autumn of 1816, by way of Ostend, Bruges, Ghent, Antwerp, Brussels, and Waterloo. Embellished with Wood Cuts. By John Evans, jun. A.M. 12mo. pp. 558. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

Our old library acquaintance has here given us a very comprehensive title-page, but still it does not contain within its compass a tithe of the subjects to be found in the volume, which forms a very entertaining olio. It recalls to our recollection an amusing farce, in which the humour of an old gentleman consists in every word that he utters reminding him of some story; with this material difference, however, that the dramatic hero's propensity occasions a perpetual interruption, and leaves every *tale* without a *tail*; while Mr. Evans has the art of so interweaving his reminiscences as to make them appear necessary appendages of his narration:—proving, by the happy introduction and adaptation of matters which seem most irrelevant, that, were he a poetic instead of a prose writer, he would be a most excellent filler up of *bouts rimés*. 'The Rising Generation,' for whose improvement the work is intended, owe their thanks to this writer for a book containing much useful information. The excursion is rendered more interesting by the various pieces of poetry which are interspersed, and is considerably enlivened by the good humour and determination to be pleased which are every where visible.

Mr. Evans's son now appears for the first time, we believe, before the public as an author. His 'Journal' was evidently not intended for publication; and it is so modest in pretensions that, were it less worthy than it is, we should be disinclined to be strict in our observations. It will serve as a guide to those travellers who are following the same route, and will point out to them some of the most prominent objects of curiosity. We must, however, advise him to attend to the clearness of his composition, and to avoid one or two inaccuracies which we have observed. 'The boat *left at a* quarter past nine.' Left what? '*Mr. B. was well nigh offending*,' &c.;—'were treated after a manner:'

rt. 28. *A Critical Examination of the Bishop of Landaff's Posthumous Volume*, entitled "Anecdotes of his Life." 8vo. pp. 92. Simpkin and Co. 1818.

Most of the strictures in this examination have already appeared n the *Courier* news-paper, but are now republished with additional emarks. The author, whoever he may be, has displayed acuteness in exposing the infirmities and imperfections of the deceased bishop, but we think that, in some instances, his censure has passed the line not only of moderation but of truth. That this learned prelate was egotistical and arrogant, that temporal advancement was too much the object of his life, and that his disappointments in this respect were felt with more pungency than either a philosopher or a Christian should have allowed, we can readily grant, and have already stated in our account of his book: but he was neither *vicious* nor *malignant*, according to the common acceptation of those terms. He had too strong a sense of the intellectual superiority which he possessed over his competitors for prelatical distinction, as well as over those with whom he mingled in the common intercourse of life: but this very consciousness served rather to elevate than to degrade his character. It kept him above the shame of immorality; — and, where he was an enemy, his enmity was open and manly, without any of the petty artifices or impotent spite of a *malicious* disposition. When the present author charges him (p. 2.) with the loathsome habit of hypocrisy, he forgets that *hypocritical* bishops are not usually those who are the least favoured by the smiles of ministerial regard.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Miles inquires concerning the important work of the Archduke Charles of Austria, giving an account of the Campaign in Germany in the year 1796, as illustrative of his *Principles of Strategy*, or the Science of War; and, in answer, we have to inform our correspondent that he will find a report of this production in our APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxvi., which is published with the present Review.

If *R. C.* will state more fully the object of his solicitude, which at present he has ingeniously wrapped in a web of mystery, we will try to effect an accomplishment of his wish.

We shall attend to the subject of *B Z.*'s letter, as soon as an opportunity arrives; which we hope will not be long delayed.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxvi. is published with this Number, and contains a variety of articles relative to interesting new productions of the Continental presses: with the *Title* and *Index*, &c. for the volume.

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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For OCTOBER, 1818.

ART. I. *Narrative of a Ten Years' Residence at Tripoli in Africa:* from the Original Correspondence in the Possession of the Family of the late Richard Tully, Esq. the British Consul. Comprising Authentic Memoirs and Anecdotes of the reigning Bashaw, his Family, and other Persons of Distinction: also, An Account of the Domestic Manners of the Moors, Arabs, and Turks. Second Edition. Illustrated with a Map and several coloured Plates. 4to. pp. 390. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1817.

THIS amusing volume is appropriated less to the political situation than to the domestic manners of the inhabitants of Tripoli, the letters being the composition of a lady, the sister-in-law to Mr. Tully, British consul at that port. They bear every mark of authenticity, and contain a number of curious particulars; leaving us scarcely any other objection to make to the book than its prolixity, and the limited importance of the topics which excited such minute observation.

It fortunately happened that Ali Bashaw, the ruler of Tripoli during the ten years (from 1783 to 1793) of the correspondence in question, was a mild governor, and particularly anxious that respect should be shewn to the Christian residents. This disposition led to the enjoyment of a period of tranquillity of unusual length for that disturbed country, and the sex of the writer gave her various advantages with regard to the observation of interior manners. It would, however, be no easy matter to make any thing like a summary of her correspondence, since it was prompted by the occurrence of particular incidents, and subjected to no other arrangement than that of time. A dreadful plague ravaged Tripoli in 1785 and 1786; which misfortune is described in many successive letters, and forms in reality the only connected part of the volume. To other topics, the reader must be directed either by the table of contents or by a brief index at the end. We shall make a point of passing over in our report all that is temporary or personal, and directing our attention to information of a general and permanent nature.

We begin by a passage descriptive of the climate and products in the neighbourhood of Tripoli:

'*May* 24th, 1784.

'The Bashaw has not given his consent for some time past to the Christians to reside in the country, at a greater distance than four or five miles from the city of Tripoli, as he cannot answer for their safety, on account of the incursions of the Arabs, and even of the Moors, many of the cyderies being at present nearly in a state of revolt. We have the use of a large Moorish country-house on the skirts of the sands; and though the grounds belonging to it are not in the best order, yet they are in the stile of all African gardens,—a mixture of beauty and desolation. The orange, citron, and lime trees, are in their fullest bloom: their branches, covered with flowers, are at the same time bending down with the weight of fruit ready for gathering. The Arabian jasmines and violets cover the ground; yet in various parts of the garden, wheat, barley, water-melons, and other still coarser plants, are indiscriminately found growing. The high date tree, with its immense spreading branches, is planted round the gardens near the walls.—

'In these gardens the Moors form no walks, only an irregular path is left, which you trace by the side of the numerous white marble channels that cross it with rivulets of water, as I have before described to you, through an almost impenetrable wood of aromatic trees and shrubs. The sweet orange of Barbary is reckoned finer than those of China, both in flavour and beauty; and the next best is a small red orange which grows at Malta, almost crimson within. Cherries are not known here; and pease and potatoes, only when cultivated by the Christians. Water melons, as if ordered by Providence, are particularly excellent and plentiful. Many owe their lives to this cooling and grateful fruit, when nearly expiring through insupportable heat. The pomegranate is another luxurious fruit of this country. The Moors, by pressing the juice through the rind of it, procure an exquisite drink. The Indian and Turkey figs are acknowledged to be extremely good here. There are two sorts of apricots: one which is remarkable for its large size and excellence, while the other, with the musk melons and peaches, is very indifferent. There are several sorts of fine plums and some very high flavoured sweet grapes, which, if cultivated in quantities for wine, would render this country rich in vineyards, from the ease and excellence of their production; but Mahomet has too expressly forbidden wine to Mussulmans, to admit of its being made in their presence, for even the sight of it is repugnant to the laws of the Koran. There are delightful olive woods near us, but when the olives are ripe, it is inconvenient to walk under the trees on account of the olives continually falling loaded with oil. Near to these woods are marble reservoirs to receive the oil the Moors extract from the olives, and from these reservoirs they collect it into earthen jars: it is as clear as spring water and very rich. The natives who can afford it are so delicate in their taste of oil, that they allot it to their servants when it has been made eight or nine months, and yet when a year old it often surpasses the finest Florence oil. The walls which surround the houses and gardens of the principal people divide this part into a number of narrow roads in all directions: beyond them are date-trees interspersed with fields of barley and high Indian corn. If to spaces of sand separated by olive plantations, sun-burnt peasants, and camels without number, are added a burning sun and the clearest azure sky, a just picture may be formed of this place.'

An extra-attention to the topics of dress and furniture is to be expected in the letters of a female; and no part of this correspondence is more interesting than that which relates to the habits of the Moorish ladies: the particulars related being curious from the contrast which they form with European habits, though the detail is often minute and tedious. This remark is particularly applicable to the account of the first visit paid (pp. 29, 30, &c.) to the Bashaw's family in the castle and harem of Tripoli. The access to the harem is described to be by long vaulted passages, after which the female visitant (for no male strangers are admitted) reaches a gloomy court-yard, grated over the top with iron bars, and is thence introduced into the apartments. The wife of the Bashaw visited by the fair author had passed the age of forty, and, though still very handsome, had evidently suffered greatly from grief, as well as by severe fasts which she had imposed on herself on account of the loss of her favourite children: her disposition was marked by great benevolence, and formed a striking contrast to the impression at first suggested by the character of the people. She had her daughters beside her, who were married to Christian renegados; it being a rule in Tripoli, as in more civilized countries, to prevent the blood-royal from being mixed with that of subjects. Marriages take place here at a very early age, the women being sometimes grand-mothers when only thirty years old. Nothing of particular interest passed at this interview; and we turn from it to one of the most amusing passages in the book, which describes the surprize of a party of Moorish ladies on visiting the house of a Christian family.

' *September* 20. 1787.

' We were highly favoured last night with the company of the ladies of Hadgi Abderrahman's family to supper, the only instance

of

of their having so far favoured a Christian house. The ambassador came himself first at nine o'clock in the evening: in about ten minutes after, his lady and his eldest daughter by his first wife, and two Moorish ladies, relations of the family, with their black and white women attendants, arrived. The gentlemen retired, and none of the male servants were suffered to appear. As soon as the ladies came, the ambassador left us, as, agreeably to the custom of the country, he could not have appeared at the repast with his family. The Moorish ladies, when they entered the house, were so entirely concealed, that it was impossible to discover them, and they could only be known by the crowd of attendants that surrounded them, and by the whiteness and delicate texture of their drapery. When their slaves removed the supper covering, the next transparent web or baracan discovered the most costly dresses, with great quantities of jewels.—

'It was very entertaining to us, to see the curiosity and surprize every thing through the house excited in our visitors: they beheld in every second article something quite novel. They admired very much the books that were lying about, as they are only accustomed to see, or rather hear of manuscripts, and they seemed hardly to credit that ladies sat down to read through the books they saw. On the apartments being shewn to them which were allotted for officers and gentlemen to sleep in occasionally, some of them manifested no less surprize at male visitors being permitted to sleep in the same part of the house where the ladies of the family were. When they were shewn the beds, they considered the building (as they termed it) of the bedsteads inclosed with curtains, as distinct apartments: their own beds or couches are laid on the floor of their sedda or bedchamber, filling up an alcove, enclosed with rich curtains.'

In point of dress, the Moorish ladies by no means fall short, either in pains or expence, of any of their fair sisters in Europe. A ludicrous description of their *system* in this respect is given in a visit to a family (pp. 157, 158.) where the females were attended by a number of slaves acting as tire-women or dressers, each charged with a particular function in this important department: one plaiting the hair, another perfuming it, a third laying on the cosmetics, a fourth painting the eye-lashes, a fifth putting on the jewels, a sixth placing the head-dress, and a seventh adjusting the whole figure. Some of these operations, viz. that of painting the eye-lashes, are very tedious; and the giving a shape to the eye-brows, by pulling out every superfluous hair, is extremely painful. The Circassian ladies endeavour by their dress to heighten the beauty or hide the defects of nature: but the Moorish seek only to add to the consequence of their appearance, or to evince respect to those for whom they ornament themselves, leaving the correspondence with their shape or features quite out of the question. It is some satisfaction to learn that this rage is not universal, and that others of the sex find time for the discharge of domestic duties:

> ' The Moorish ladies are in general occupied in overlooking a numerous set of slaves, who make their sweatmeats and cakes, clean and grind their wheat, spin, and in short, are set about whatever seems necessary to be done. The ladies inspect by turns the dressing of the victuals, and during the time spent in this way, two sets of slaves are in attendance; one set perform the culinary operations, while another station themselves round their mistress, removing instantly from her sight any thing that may annoy her, and using fans without intermission, to keep off flies or insects, while she leans on one or other of the slaves, walking about to direct and overlook what is doing.
>
> ' One of the reasons given, why even the ladies of the royal family must minutely attend to this part of their duty, is, to prevent the possibility of any treachery being practised in preparing their husbands' meals. The hours the Turkish or Moorish ladies have to spare for amusement, are spent in singing and dancing.'

We have seldom seen a work that abounded more in tragical tales than the present; such as the seizure and transportation of innocent females into slavery, the endurance of frightful hardships, fatal examples of revenge, and sudden alternations of fortune; all being the consequence of the lawless state of an uncivilized community. Order having never prevailed in that country, the field opened to individual violence and artifice is boundless. Miserable as is this state of things, it gives rise to many interesting and affecting pictures. One of the principal characters in the book is a Georgian, who was carried off at an early age from her parents, but was luckily destined to fall into the hands of a kind protector, who married her, and found in her an affectionate mother to his first family. A very different relation is given (p. 43.) in the case of a beautiful Circassian, who became a victim to the rage of an unsuccessful admirer. A third and still more tragical history is that (pp. 47, 48.) of the daughter of a man of respectability; who, on being obliged to quit her home for the seraglio, carried with her a deadly potion, and was found, on the entrance of the Bashaw into her apartment, extended lifeless on the floor. An equally affecting but somewhat less melancholy recital is given (p. 161.) in the case of two handsome negroes, male and female, who, in their own country, were under promise of marriage when the latter was suddenly missed; her lover repaired immediately to a vessel anchored off the coast for the purpose of collecting slaves; and finding that, on account of her beauty, the price asked for her redemption (nearly 100*l*.)

exceeded his means, he lost no time in selling his little flock of sheep, and in accompanying her into slavery. The faithful pair were sold with other negroes to an African, at whose house the author of these letters was on a visit in January 1788; and who was on the point of sending off the female to a remote destination, when her earnest entreaties, joined to those of her lover, prevailed on him to allow them to remain near each other. Still the duration of this indulgence was uncertain; and we are told in these letters that the beautiful female, at the time of the visit just mentioned, was in a desponding state, retiring frequently into a corner of the room, sitting inconsolable by herself, and unable to join her countrywomen in the dance.

Tripoli, being surrounded by deserts, had frequently escaped the plague when other parts of Barbary were ravaged by it: but in 1785 it was doomed to feel the full weight of this dreadful scourge. Unhappily, also, the horrors of this visitation were increased by those of scarcity from the non-arrivals of supplies, European vessels fearing to approach the coast during the pestilence.

' *May* 27. 1785.

' The present moment is the most dangerous period of the disorder for the Christians. When once the houses are shut, their safety will depend greatly on the strictness of the quarantine they keep. No business is now transacted but with a blaze of straw kept burning between the person admitted into the house and the one he is speaking to. A friend is admitted only into a matted apartment, where he retires to the farther end of the room to a straw seat, which is not touched after his departure till it is fumigated. The keys of all the ways into the house are kept by the master of the family only. If any of the Christian gentlemen are obliged to go out on business during this interval, before the houses are closed, a guard walks before and one behind, to prevent any person approaching too near; and, on returning, the guards are put into quarantine for some days. Without these precautions, it would be impossible to escape this dreadful disorder, the rage of which increases every hour.'—

' *June* 28. 1785.

' The plague now depopulating this place is said to be most severe than has been known at Constantinople for centuries past, and is proved by calculation to destroy twice the number of people in proportion to those who died of the same disorder lately at Tunis, when five hundred a day were carried out of that city. To-day upwards of two hundred have passed the town gate. The city of Tripoli contains 14,000 inhabitants, and the city of Tunis 30,000.

' Our house, the last of the Christian houses that remained in part open, on the 14th of this month commenced a complete quarantine. The hall on entering the house is parted into three divisions, and the door leading to the street is never unlocked but in the presence of the master of the house, who keeps the key in his own possession. It is opened but once in the day, when he goes himself as far as the first hall, and sends a servant to unlock and unbolt the door. The servant returns, and the person in the street waits till he is desired to enter with the provisions he has been commissioned to buy. He finds ready placed for him a vessel with vinegar and water to receive the meat, and another with water for the vegetables.'—

'*July* 1. 1785.

'Since the beginning of this dreadful infection, which is only two mouths, three thousand persons have died in this town (nearly one-fourth of its inhabitants), and its victims are daily increasing. It must be observed, that the Moors, in all maladies, have great disadvantages, arising from the manner the people here treat their sick. I believe it to be often a doubt, whether the patient dies of the malady he labours under, or by the hand of those attending on him. They seem to have but a slender knowledge of physic: fire is one of their chief remedies; they use it for almost every thing; for wounds, sickness, colds, and even for head-aches, they have recourse to a red-hot iron, with which they burn the part affected. They perform amputations safely, though in a rough manner; but in all kinds of diseases, such as fevers, &c. it is thought one-fourth die of the disorder, and three of the remedies made use of. They will give fat boiled up with coffee-grounds to a child of three months old for a cough; and to a man in a high fever, a dish called tarshia, made of red pepper, onion, oil, and greens; or a dish called bazzeen, a kind of stiff batter pudding, dressed with a quantity of oil, and garnished with dried salt meat fried, known by the name of kadded.'

The succeeding letters are replete with a number of affecting anecdotes; and we learn that half of the Jewish population of the town, nearly half of the Moors, and a still larger proportion of the indigent part of the Christians, fell victims to the pestilence. Recoveries took place in certain cases, when the tumours were opened by a lancet: but this expedient was deemed efficacious only when the violence of the disorder was past. After having related an act of humanity on the part of a Moor, the fair author proceeds to mention some most extraordinary circumstances which befell him when about to sink under this dreadful malady.

'This man, who was a Hadgi, and named Hamet, was a Dragoman (an officer of the guard belonging to the English consul), and declined being in quarantine in the consular house during the plague, on account of his family. He was married to a beautiful woman, named Mariuma, and had not been many days at home before he caught the fatal distemper. During the last stage of it, his disconsolate wife was sitting by his bed-side: she had been cherishing a faint hope of his recovery, and had been watching him into a soft sleep. *Worn out herself* with fatigue, her mind soothed by the delusive prospect she had formed of seeing Hadgi Hamet awake recovered, Mariuma was sinking in repose, when she was disturbed by the hand of a man opening her baracan, and advancing a poignard to her heart, while with the other he was endeavouring to obtain some keys and papers belonging to her husband, which she wore in her bosom. She eluded his grasp, and beheld in her intended murderer her husband's brother, whose emissaries having informed him that Hadgi Hamet had just expired, imagined that it was a fair opportunity to favour his plot of destroying the whole family together, while the horrors of the plague drove far from the habitation of the sick all those who would otherwise approach it; for Hadgi Hamet's only child, a fine girl of seven years old, had died that morning, and was yet unburied. When he entered his brother's apartment, he considered him dead, and seeing Mariuma sunk on the bed, supposed she had fainted over the body. At his rough approach, Mariuma awakened Hadgi Hamet by her screams, who, on seeing her distress, instantly sprung from his bed. The disappointed wretch finding his brother not dead, but rising from his couch with tenfold strength for the moment, retired affrighted to the skiffar, where his mother and sister were waiting, to whom, for the sake of humanity, it is to be hoped, he had not yet imparted his worst intentions. They had accompanied this assassin to town from the country-house where they lived, but which belonged to Hadgi Hamet.

'The effect of this horrid event, joined to that of the plague, at once bereft Hadgi Hamet of his senses. He broke loose from them all, and rushed from his apartment into the street. The scene at that moment was truly awful. Hadgi Hamet, in his night-clothes, stood opposing himself to those around him, with all the wild fury of an enraged Moor, with his attagan or knife drawn, to keep those who would approach him at a distance. Prostrate at his feet was his wife, with her baracan loose, tearing off the few ornaments she had on, and wiping away her tears with her hair, whilst she implored her husband with every soft endearment to return to his bed, and live to protect her from his wretched brother. Insensible and deaf to her intreaties, he set off towards his house out of the town, whence his mother, brother, and sister had just arrived. His wife, shocked at any one's attempting to lay hands on him for fear of increasing his pain, insisted that no one should touch him, but followed him in silent anguish with those who would accompany her. After they had walked some distance, Hadgi Hamet returned quickly with Mariuma to his house, where he died soon after, leaving his effects in the hands of the English consul, by which means this unhappy widow was saved from the avarice of his brutal family.'

Enough of these doleful scenes: — it is now time to take leave of this hideous state of society; and we will conclude by a short extract, descriptive of a black prince who had come from the recesses of Africa, and had travelled in Europe with a thirst for information seldom found in so uncivilized a region.

'The Prince of Bornou, considering he comes from the interior of Africa, is extremely well informed, and much acquainted with the state of Europe. The most striking part of his dress was the pearls he wore, which were all of an uncommon size. He had large gold ear-rings set with the most valuable jewels, but no nose-ring, as it is said the great people of Bornou have. His attendants were composed of Turks and Blacks, and all perfectly well accoutred.

'The Moors are in the habit of recounting such fabulous stories of Bornou and its king, that it is impossible to rely on their accounts. The prince, whose intelligence is probably correct, describes the kingdom of Bornou as a most fertile country, with good fruits, particularly grapes, apricots, and pomegranates. He says, though some wild beasts are seen there, they are not so numerous as in the deserts between Tunis and Tripoli; to cross these deserts being reckoned among the most dangerous journies in Africa, on account of the number of lions and tigers that issue from the woods and mountains near Tunis. The prince says, his subjects are free from the dreadful customs of the nations surrounding them, who eat, sacrifice, and sell the blacks, and that only those who call themselves Christians* and the Pagans commit such enormities.'

We cannot pass many encomiums on the style of the fair author of this publication; since she is apt to be very desultory, diverging from one description to another, returning subsequently to the original, and eventually again digressing in the same manner. Her repetitions are so frequent as to occupy no small portion of the book; and we are rather surprized that an editor did not feel the propriety of retrenching these parts, as well as a variety of remarks of little importance in themselves, and foreign to the object of the work. The plates are well executed, but they appear to be taken from drawings more recent than the MS.; and we cannot help suspecting that the finely coloured portrait of Sidy Hassan, the late Bey, which fronts the title-page, is nothing else than a fancy-piece. The task of the editor has consisted in adding running titles, a brief and unsatisfactory index, and a variety of notes extracted from recent travellers, such as Blaquiere and Chateaubriand, which seem to run into the opposite extreme of diffuseness. Still the volume is possessed of considerable interest, and exhibits, in almost every letter, the advantage of painting from the life.

'* The Abyssinians call themselves descendants of Solomon. After the visit of the Queen of Sheba to King Solomon, the Abyssinians were converted, and the laws of the Queen of Sheba, who died 986 before the birth of Christ, have been always maintained by the Abyssinians; — first, when Jews; and afterwards when they embraced Christianity. — *Bruce's Travels.*'

Art. II. *Travels in Brazil.* By Henry Koster. 4to. pp. 501. 2l. 10s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Brazil was first discovered in the year 1500, by Pinzon, and was nominally placed under the dominion of the crown of Portugal by Cabral, who landed at Porto-Seguro, and visited other parts of the coast. Amerigo Vespucci was next sent with three ships to explore the region; and he made a kind of settlement there, and dispatched vessels to Lisbon laden with Brazil-wood. This material became fashionable in Europe, and gave to the land which produced it the eventual name of Brazil. The curiosity and cupidity of the French court, however, having thus been excited, the right of the Pope to grant Brazil to the Portuguese was disputed; piratical vessels were sent to the shore; and, by means of Diogo Alvarez, a Portuguese who had been shipwrecked and who had intermarried with the savages, a French fort was with their concurrence erected at Bahia, for the protection of commodities landed, and the haven was opened to the commercial adventurers of every country.

By the institution of this free port, the jealousy of the court of Portugal was in its turn aroused; and the territory of Brazil was in 1510 formally divided into captaincies, a military governor being appointed over each. Sousa, the first viceroy, fixed on the island of Saint Vincent for his residence. Cattle from Europe were brought thither, and sugar-canes from Madeira; and this island became to the American continent the seminary of a new agriculture. Pernambuco was colonized compulsorily by convicts.

In 1549, the court of Lisbon determined to put the several captaincies under one governor-general, who was to reside at San Salvador in the bay of All Saints. A descendant of the first viceroy received the appointment; a military and an ecclesiastical establishment were attached to the colony; and a new fort, a custom-house, a college, and a church, were erected. One thousand colonists emigrated from Portugal on this occasion, of whom six were Jesuits, three hundred and twenty were civil and military servants of the crown, four hundred were convicts, and the remainder were free traders and settlers. Within four months, a hundred houses were built, and many sugar-plantations were laid out in the vicinity. These enterprizes were eminently successful; the settlers wrote home for wives; and the Queen of Portugal sent over many female orphans of good family, who were to be endowed with grants of land and portions of the government stores. In young colonies it is expedient, at least once in every generation, suddenly to increase the stationary establishment of government, and the extent of its patronage; since this measure enhances rapidly the value of the occupied lands and buildings, and thus stimulates the enterprize of fresh cultivations and edifices. Sardinha, being appointed bishop in 1552, went thither, accompanied by a chapter of canons and other dignitaries, and carried to the new cathedral some splendid furniture for devotional purposes. At Piritaninga, a school was founded by the Jesuits; and orphan-boys were sent over from Portugal to be there trained for the office of interpreters and missionaries.

On the death of Joam III. in 1557, Mem de Sa was appointed governor-general of Brazil; and, at the instigation of the Jesuit Nobrega, he became very jealous of the French settlers in the land, who were numerous. Under the conduct of Villegagnon, and with the protection of Admiral Coligny, a party of Huguenots had embarked for that country, and had established themselves at Rio de Janeiro: but some differences arose between the Catholic chieftain and the Protestant crew. The court of France cared little for an heretical colony; and Mem de Sa was suffered to expel the French from a well-chosen situation, which they had occupied in concurrence with the sentiments of the natives. A second attempt at stationary intrusion was made by them in 1611, under Ravardiere: but these French were again expelled by the zealous nationality of Diogo de Campos.

In consequence of the African defeat and the death of Don Sebastian in 1579, the crown of Portugal had devolved on Cardinal Henry, his great uncle. A dispensation was solicited from the Pope, to enable this prince to marry: but Philip II. of Spain, who had pretensions to the Lusitanian throne, contrived by his intrigues at Rome to procrastinate the grant, until Cardinal Henry died; and then he took forcible possession of Lisbon in 1580. This acquisition of the Portuguese colonies by the court of Spain placed them in a state of war with the English and with the Dutch; and, under Cavendish, Lancaster, and Drake, some piratical inroads were made by English buccaneers: but the Dutch, with more prospective wisdom, formed a West-India company, and undertook a system of permanent conquest. They ascertained the maritime value of Recife, acquired many of the neighbouring settlements, introduced a considerable Jewish colonization, and placed their several acquisitions in 1636 under the government of Jan Mauritz of Nassau; whose administration was in general statesman-like, but illiberal to the Catholics.

The house of Braganza being called by acclamation to the crown of Portugal in 1640, as the legitimate sovereigns in right of birth, a truce for ten years was concluded between the government at Lisbon and that of Holland, which seemed to recognize the *status quo* of the colonial districts as rightful possession. The Dutch, however, attempted many incroachments; and the Portuguese in revenge organized, by means of the Jesuits, an extensive conspiracy among the colonial land-owners, in order to expel the European heretics by means of Indian allies. Vieira headed this conspiracy, and succeeded in restoring to the house of Braganza the entire original territory of the Portuguese in South America.

From this period until the emigration of the court of Lisbon to its trans-Atlantic possessions, Brazil has not been the seat of remarkable changes, or events. The Paulistas, by founding an internal slave-trade, have checked among the native tribes the natural progress of civilization, as much as the Jesuits have accelerated it by communicating to the savages the arts and superstitions of Europe. The great favour, with which all the idolatrous features of the Catholic religion have been received by the Indians, proves the truth of an observation attributed to the president of the Romish college for propagating Christianity, that statues and pictures are the books of the illiterate.

By the treaty of friendship and alliance, of commerce and navigation, signed between the crowns of Great Britain and Portugal at Rio de Janeiro, February 19. 1810, a new stimulus has been given to the prosperity of Brazil; and much temptation is offered to the British merchant to settle there: his religious opinions being also exempt from the inquisition of the holy office. These circumstances render the country an important object of English curiosity, and will secure to the Travels of Mr. Koster not merely the inspection of the general reader, but the permanent consultation of the practical trader. They are dedicated to the present Poet-Laureate, whose excellent and detailed History of Brazil is here highly praised by a competent judge *; and they are divided into twenty-one chapters, to each of which we will allot a few words.

Mr. K. begins by briefly narrating the voyage from Liverpool to Pernambuco, and describing the town and harbour of Recife. A plan of the port of Pernambuco is attached; and a view of a Jangada, which is thus described:

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* Mr. Southey's second volume of his History is now before us, and will probably form an article in our next Number.

> 'Nothing this day created so much astonishment on board our hip, amongst those who had not been before upon this coast, as he *Jangadas* sailing about in all directions. These are simply rafts f six logs of a peculiar species of light timber, lashed or pinned ogether; a large latine sail; a paddle used as a rudder; a sliding keel let down between the two centre logs; a seat for the steersman, and a long forked pole, upon which is hung the vessel containing water, the provisions, &c. These rude floats have a most singular appearance at sea, no hull being apparent even when near them. They are usually managed by two men, and go closer to the wind than any description of vessel.'

A Visit to the Governor, and a Ride into the Country — a Residence at a Village near Recife — and a Tour to Olinda, occupy Chapter II. The climate is praised, and several Catholic festivals are described.

The third chapter speaks of the Government, Taxes, Public Institutions, Prisons, Criminals, and Military Establishments. An excellent Foundling-Hospital exists at Pernambuco, and the progress of loose manners renders such establishments worthy of imitation: but the little island of Fernando de Noronha, to which male criminals only are banished, for various terms of years, is stated to be a sink of corruption which can only vitiate and not reform a criminal.

Chapter IV. describes a journey to Goiana, to Paraiba, and back again: this is a considerable inland-tour in a northerly direction, and brings forwards many of the native and unknown features of the region: but it also reveals many unexpected marks of social declension. The roads, if such they can be called, may assist to direct but scarcely to convey the traveller; and the towns perpetually offer specimens of dilapidation, not only in the condition of the monasteries but in that of the useful buildings.

In the fifth chapter, Mr. K. describes a journey from Goiana to Rio-grande. Here an extract will give an idea of the habits of the settler and of the traveller:

> 'From Dous Rios, we advanced the following day to the sugar plantation of Espirito Santo, situated upon the banks of the river Paraiba, which becomes dry in the summer at a short distance above this estate. I had letters to the owner of it, who is a member of the Cavalcante family, and the Capitam-mor of the captaincy of Paraiba. I was received by him in a very friendly manner. The house is in the usual style of the country, having only the ground-floor, and no ceiling, the tiles and rafters being in full view. Supper of dried meat, and the flour of the mandioc made into paste, and called *piram*, was placed before me; also, some hard biscuits, and red wine. I was not then sufficiently a Brazilian to eat *piram*, and took the biscuits with the meat in preference,

which much astonished my host. Sweetmeats were afterwards brought in, which are always good in the houses of persons of his rank in life; the opulent people in Brazil taking as much pride in their *doces*, as an English citizen in his table or his wines. The cloth was laid at one end of a long table, and I sat down by myself, whilst the Capitam-mor placed himself upon the table, near to the other end, and talked to me; and some of the chief persons of his establishment stood around, to see the strange animal called an Englishman. We adjourned from the supper-room into another spacious apartment, and each of us took a hammock, of which there were several in the room, and swung and talked until we were half asleep. One of his men supposed, that as I spoke Portugueze, either I must be an Englishman who did not speak English, or that any Portugueze, on going to England, would immediately speak the language of that country, as I did Portugueze. The Capitam-mor seldom leaves his estate to go to Recife, or even to Paraiba, and lives in the usual style of the Brazilian gentry, in a kind of feudal state. He had several young men about him, some of whom were employed by him; neither his wife, nor any of his children appeared. The principal apartments of this house are two spacious rooms, having a great number of doors and windows; in one, were several hammocks and a sofa; and in the other, the long table upon which I supped; there were a few chairs in each of them; the floors were of brick, and the shutters and doors were unpainted. The owner of this mansion wore a shirt and a pair of drawers, a long bed-gown, called a *chambre*, and a pair of slippers. This is the usual dress of those persons who have no work to perform. When a Brazilian takes to wearing one of these long gowns, he begins to think himself a gentleman, and entitled consequently to much respect.

'The next day we advanced about seven leagues, and, for the first time, I slept in the open air. We intended to have taken up our lodging for the night at a neighbouring hamlet, but the huts were so small and miserable, being constructed of the leaves of palm trees, that I preferred the open air. We made for the rivulet which runs at a little distance from these habitations; the horses were immediately unloaded, and their pack-saddles taken off, that they might roll in comfort. The next thing to be done was to get fire-wood; in most parts of the country it is very plentiful, and as we were upon the skirts of a thick wood, there was here no want of it. A light was struck, and two fires made; we got an additional pan from one of the neighbouring huts, and our dried meat was cooked. The meat is dried in the old Indian manner, by laying it upon a platform of twigs, raised about eighteen inches from the ground, and making a fire underneath. We discovered that not far off, a field or piece of land, rather more cleared of wood than the rest, was rented by a cottager, who would allow our horses to be put into it for a *vintem*, about five farthings each, for the night, which the guide thought I should consider dear, and therefore told me it was the usual price. As may be supposed, I made no great difficulties on this score, and the horses were taken to the place by Julio, and his companion. I now thought myself settled for the night, and therefore ate my supper, sitting in my hammock, which was slung between two trees, with the plate upon one of the trunks; having finished, I took my segar, and sat down close to the fire; the guide lighted his pipe, and placed himself on the opposite side, that we might have a talk about our proceedings for the morrow. I returned to my hammock about ten o'clock, but found the air very sharp, and consequently laid down under the lee of the fire, upon a hide, of which we had two for covering the loads in case of rain.

'This was to me a new scene; — when I thought of the complete change of habits which this kind of life required, and how entirely different it was from any thing in England, I may almost say in Europe, — when I looked round, and saw our several fires, for the cold air had, by this time, obliged each person to have his own; the men all asleep, our pack-saddles, trunks, and other parts of our baggage scattered about, as it was taken from the horses,— when I heard the running of the water, and the rustling of the trees; and when I considered that I was entering among a people with whose habits I was little acquainted, whose feelings towards my countrymen I was ignorant of, — I felt a kind of damp; but this was soon removed, by thinking of the pleasure of return, and of the accomplishment of what I was deemed incapable of performing. I was cheered by my recollection of the knowledge I had of the language, and by the determination I felt within me of conforming to the customs of the people,— of submitting to their prejudices. I was not old enough to have contracted any habits, too deep to be laid aside when necessary. These thoughts were interrupted by the cry of "Jezus," which was repeated every half minute in a dismal voice; I called to the guide, supposing it to proceed from some person in distress: he waked, and I told him what had made me call to him,—he said, it was only some person helping another "*a bem morrer*," that is, that some dying person, which I found was the usual custom, had a friend to repeat the word "Jezus," until the sufferer expired, that it might not be forgotten, and, perhaps, to keep the devil off.'

Chapter VI. continues the journey from Natal to Acu. A frequent want of water renders this track most inconvenient to inhabit: indeed, there is much reason to believe that drought is an increasing evil, both in the West-Indian islands and on the Brazilian continent; and that Guiana, which is well-watered, will on that account ultimately become the chief seat of sugar-plantation. The art of raising water is, however, by no means well understood, or industriously practised. A Sertanejo, or inlander, is excellently pourtrayed in this section, both with the pencil and with the pen.

The next chapter relates the journey from Acu to Aracati and to Seara, and introduces the reader to the Indian villages of Aronxas and Masangana. These people are converted to catholicism, and have been formed into task-gangs under white overseers, who contract with neighbouring proprietors for the wages of labour to be allowed to the workmen: but these Indian labourers often desert before the expiration of the time for which they have been let; and they uniformly refuse to their employer the appellation of master, using the words *friend*, or *patron*. Their manners are thus depicted:

> 'The instances of murder committed by Indians are rare. They are pilferers rather than thieves. When they can, they eat immoderately; but if it is necessary they can live upon a very trifling quantity of food, to which their idleness often reduces them. They are much addicted to liquor, and will dance in a ring, singing some of the monotonous ditties of their own language, and drink for nights and days without ceasing. Their dances are not indecent, as those of Africa. The mulattos consider themselves superior to the Indians, and even the Creole blacks look down upon them; "He is as paltry as an Indian," is a common expression among the lower orders in Brazil. They are vilely indifferent regarding the conduct of their wives and daughters; lying and other vices attached to savage life belong to them. Affection seems to have little hold upon them; they appear to be less anxious for the life and welfare of their children than any other cast of men who inhabit that country. The women however do not, among these semi-barbarians, perform the principal drudgery; if the husband is at home, he fetches water from the rivulet and fuel from the wood; he builds the hut whilst his wife takes shelter in some neighbour's shed. But if they travel she has her young children to carry, the pots, the baskets, and the excavated gourds, whilst the husband takes his wallet of goat-skin and his hammock rolled up upon his back, his fishing net and his arms, and walks in the rear. The children are washed on the day of their birth in the nearest brook or pool of water. Both the men and the women are cleanly in many of their habits, and particularly in those relating to their persons; but in some other matters their customs are extremely disgusting; the same knife is used for all purposes, and with little preparatory cleaning is employed in services of descriptions widely opposite. They do not reject any kind of food, and devour it almost without being cooked; rats and other small vermin, snakes and alligators, are all accepted.
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> 'The instinct, for I know not what else to call it, which the Indians possess above other men, in finding their way across a wood to a certain spot on the opposite side without path or apparent mark, is most surprising; they trace footsteps over the dry leaves which lie scattered under the trees. The letter-carriers, from one province to another, are mostly Indians, for from habit they endure great fatigue, and will walk day after day, with little rest, for months together. I have met them with their wallets made of goat-skin upon their shoulders, walking at a regular pace, which is not altered by rough or smooth. Though a horse may outstrip

outstrip one of these men for the first few days, still if the journey continues long, the Indian will, in the end, arrive before him. If a criminal has eluded the diligence of the police officers, Indians are sent in pursuit of him, as a last resource. It is well known that they will not take him alive; each man who sees the offender fires, for they do not wish to have any contention. Nor is it possible for the magistrate to fix upon the individual of the party who shot the criminal; for if any of them are asked who killed him, the answer invariably is "*os homems*," the men.

'It is usually said, that a party of Indians will fight tolerably well; but that two or three will take to their heels at the first alarm. Some of them however are resolute, and sufficiently courageous; but the general character is usually supposed to be cowardly, inconstant, devoid of acute feelings, as forgetful of favours as of injuries, obstinate in trifles, regardless of matters of importance. The character of the negro is more decided; it is worse, but it is also better. From the black race the worst of men may be formed; but they are capable likewise of great and good actions. The Indian seems to be without energy or exertion; devoid of great good or great evil. Much may at the same time be said in their favour; they have been unjustly dealt with, they have been trampled upon, and afterwards treated as children; they have been always subjected to those who consider themselves their superiors, and this desire to govern them has even been carried to the direction of their domestic arrangements. But no,—if they are a race of acute beings, capable of energy, of being deeply interested upon any subject, they would do more than they have done. The priesthood is open to them; but they do not take advantage of it. I never saw an Indian mechanic in any of the towns; there is no instance of a wealthy Indian; rich mulattos and negroes are by no means rare. I have had many dealings with them as guides and carriers, and subsequently as labourers, and have no reason to complain, for I was never injured by any of them; but neither did I receive any particular good service, excepting in the instance of Julio. For guides and carriers they are well adapted, as their usual habits lead them to the rambling life which these employments encourage. As labourers, I found that they had usually a great inclination to over-reach; but their schemes were badly made, and consequently easily discovered. I never could depend upon them for any length of time, and to advance money or cloathing to them is a certain loss. If I had any labour which was to be performed by a given time, the overseer would always reckon upon his mulatto and negro free people; but did not mention in the list of persons who were to work, any of the Indians whom I was then employing; and on my speaking of them, he answered, "An Indian is only to be mentioned for the present day," meaning that no reliance is to be placed upon them.'

The eighth chapter commences the returning track, in a somewhat varied route, and brings the reader back to Natal. A characteristic exclamation is the following:

> 'There is a certain pleasure which I cannot describe in crossing new countries, and that portion of territory over which I had travelled was new to an Englishman. From the sensations which I experienced I can well imagine what those are, which travellers in unexplored countries must feel at every step — at every novelty which comes under their view. There is yet much ground upon the continent of South America to be traversed, and I most heartily wish that it had been my fate to be the civilized individual first doomed to cross from Pernambuco to Lima.'

Chapter IX. relates a voyage from Pernambuco to Maranham, and describes St. Luis, the metropolis of the island, a city containing about 12,000 inhabitants. The houses are thatched, the windows unglazed, the convents and churches numerous. Its commerce is inferior in importance to that of Rio de Janeiro, Bahia, or Pernambuco. Alcantara, another town of Maranham, is described. This island will ultimately become of great importance, as it must eventually command a vast inland-trade up the river Orellana.

In the tenth chapter, the author records a second voyage to Pernambuco, and notices the rapid progress there of all European fashions. Mr. K.'s extreme limits of comparative observation embrace an interval of five years. Near Bom Jardim, and on the lands of Captain Paulo Travasso, he and his companion, as they were ascending the river Capibaribe, discovered gold dust.

A residence at Jaguaribe, and a journey to Goiana, form the subject of Chapter XI. The life of a Brazil-planter appears to be miserably inferior in point of accommodation to that of a West-Indian land-owner. The minute, but uninviting, specification here given of the manner of obtaining and cultivating an *engenho*, or sugar-farm, will naturally predispose English people to adventure their property rather in Demerary or Trinidad.

Mr. Koster's residence at Jaguaribe is farther detailed in the twelfth chapter; and, in the thirteenth, he removes to another plantation at Itamaraca. A curious contrast is drawn between the patient and affectionate fidelity of the negro-slave, and the versatile and ungrateful captiousness of the free Indian: from metaphysical or moral causes of character, we might have anticipated an opposite result: but probably there is something in the physical constitution of the negro which occasions him to resemble the dog, and in that of the Indian which occasions him to resemble the monkey. Some plantations are stated to be lying waste, and their buildings in ruins, in consequence of the frequent visitations of red ants, a plague eculiar to the country: surely, therefore, the partridge and ther birds which feed on ants might be imported with adantage. Indeed, one of the great services which it remains r the Portuguese government to render to Brazil is the imortation of animals and vegetables most adapted to the climate. The camel could no doubt be reared there, and would greatly assist those moving villages, which are so frequently on the march, with all their cattle and household-goods, in consequence of an unexpected drought. The olive-tree ought also to be naturalized, instead of fetching oil from Lisbon. Manners, analogous to those of the patriarchs in the land of Midian, are to be found from similar causes among the Sertanejos of Brazil. Mr. Koster narrates the introduction of vaccination during his stay, and observes that the cow-pox was extensively contagious, though not fatal, among the uninoculated inhabitants.

Chapter XIV. descants on the plagues of Brazil; among which, insects and reptiles are the chief, such as mosquitoes, ants, and poisonous snakes. An account of the various sorts of timber adorns this section; which may assist our cabinet-makers to order with precision the particular kinds that they want. The urubus, large birds which feed on carrion, are also described.

In Chapter XV. the author blames the Portuguese plan of recruiting for the army by a kind of impressment; gives some amusing instances of image-worship; describes several quadrupeds peculiar to the country; and supplies much information concerning the state of public instruction. 'It is surprizing,' he says, 'though extremely pleasing, to see how little difference is made between a white man, a mulatto, and a creole negro, if all are equally poor and if all have been born free. I say surprizing, because in the English, French, and Dutch colonies the distinction is so decidedly marked; and among the Spaniards lines are even struck between the several shades of colour.' Dramatic exhibitions called *fandangos* are described in this section; they are performed on religious holidays, and preserve in a very antient form the mysteries and moralities of the fifteenth century. A sort of aquatic drama, given by day-light, forms a peculiar and gay spectacle. — The author now states his determination to return to Europe.

The sixteenth and seventeenth chapters contain Directions to the Sugar and to the Cotton-Planter; illustrated by engravings of the Machinery employed. The eighteenth treats of the Free Population, and ascribes the liberal behaviour of the Portuguese, towards people of colour, to their military co-operation in the expulsion of the Dutch.

Slavery forms the topic of the nineteenth chapter, which is very interesting, and contains many suggestions that deserve attention in our own islands, where negro-slavery subsists in a far less mitigated form than in Brazil. The numerous holidays, of which the Romish religion enjoins observance to the land-owner, give to his slaves frequent opportunities of rest, of amusement, or of working for private profit, and thus accumulating the means of emancipation. Fifty-two Sundays, thirty-five holidays, and three or four civic festivals, place about a quarter of the year at the disposal of the Catholic slave. Moreover, the church levies a tythe in Brazil, out of which relief is to be issued to all the Christian paupers; and thus, each particular estate being free from the burden of its own poor, little obstacle occurs in dissolving the connection between master and vassal. A considerable number of slaves are usually manumitted on the death of a proprietor; and it is considered, very justly, as the noblest funeral expence to give liberty to every one who exercised a confidential employment about the person of the deceased. The author calculated here that, in about ten years, a Brazilian slave can earn the price of his freedom.

The XXth Chapter treats of the Impolicy of the Slave-trade; and many observations are made by Mr. Koster on the fifth chapter of Bolingbroke's Voyage to the Demerary, where the expediency of the slave-trade is remarkably well defended. Perhaps this question is not even yet thoroughly understood. The abolition of slavery altogether is every where the bounden duty of humanity. For this purpose were formed the original associations of Friends of the Blacks; and for this purpose were compiled and distributed the melancholy catalogues of abuses committed in Africa, on ship-board, and in the plantations, by the various buyers, transporters, and employers of slaves. The necessity of remedial legislation soon became apparent, but a difficulty arose in considering where to begin. Some proposed to amend the black code, and to attempt the reformation in the Columbian islands; others recommended first to regulate the carrying-trade, and to soften the horrors of the Middle Passage; while others again wished to garrison the whole coast of Africa, and, by stopping all farther supply of slaves from the mother-country, to enhance the value of the extant West Indian stock, and thus to secure, it was supposed, an improved treatment of the blacks in that region.

The statesmen of France, who, if they see what is right, often fail in attaining their purposes through an impatient rapidity of execution, began by declaring the political equality of men of all colours; thus cutting up at the root the relation of master and slave. From the want of a sufficient military garrison, anarchy consequently broke loose in the French islands, and rendered this plan of reformation alarming and unpopular. — The statesmen of England began more cautiously with a carrying-trade bill, which greatly abated the horrors of the Middle Passage, and was in every respect an humane and a prudent measure: but the British ministers, fearing to provoke a collision of claims between the colonial legislatures and the parliament at home, did not care to meddle with the situation of the negro-labourers in the West Indies, and thus left the main grievance wholly untouched. They contented themselves with directing popular attention, by means of Mr. Wilberforce and others, to the abolition of the slave-trade, and this has been at length conceded. Some persons, and Mr. Bolingbroke is of the number, are unable to guess what benefit can be expected to result from the abolition of the slave-trade; because, in his opinion, the mass of Blacks collected in Africa are born in a sad slavery, and are beneficially transferred by the slave-trade into a milder servitude. By stopping the slave-trade, the breeding countries of Africa may lose their western market: but the more important Asiatic market remains open, and will perpetuate in Nigritia the habits of man-stealing, and of rearing men for sale. Will it be useful in the West Indies? The abolition, inasmuch as it is efficacious, defers there the condensation of populousness, on which depends the tendency of a vassal-population to become free. In all countries, when the people first quitted the grazier-state to adopt the agricultural state, they had necessarily recourse to a slave-system resembling that of the Columbian islands. Spain by the Carthaginians, Italy by the Greeks, and the north of Europe by the Romans, were so brought under cultivation; where no villages have been formed, the master must erect huts for the labouring population; where he can find no shops, he must provide before-hand the food and the clothing which will be requisite; and, where he cannot have recourse to courts of magistracy, he must take into his own hands a right of discipline. By degrees, and especially when estates come to be partitioned, the master commutes one or another of his claims over the slave for a quit-rent in money. Where houses begin to abound, the slave conditions to lodge himself; where shops spring up, he agrees to feed and clothe himself: but the last lingering chain has always been some privilege of despotism; because a local magistracy, distinct from the land-owner, is the latest growth of progressive prosperity. This natural process towards emancipation cannot be much retarded, accelerated, or varied, by any legislative enactments: but still, the more numerous the people have become, the more speedily has vassalage every where been exchanged for freedom; and the wages of labour have been advanced in money, instead of being paid in kind. Now, if the abolition of the slave-trade has a tendency to retard the growth of a numerous black population in South-America, it must have the effect of prolonging negro-slavery in that country. Mr. Koster, somewhat strangely, confounds the slave-trade with slavery itself; observing (p. 450.) 'that the slave-trade is impolitic with regard to Brazil, because a man in a state of bondage will not be so serviceable to the community as one who acts for himself.' Now the slave-trade might continue with regard to Brazil, even if the King at Rio de Janeiro were to decree that every negro, when landed, becomes (as in Great Britain) a free man and his own master; — and, if the black sovereigns of Hayti should know how to give a rational organization to their country, they also might, at the suggestion of philanthropy, send slave-trade vessels to Africa, in order to bring their fellow-blacks into a land of liberty.

From the introduction of machinery as a substitute for human labour, much may be expected between the tropics. In order to keep a steam-engine in repair on the Essequibo, it has been found necessary to engage the settlement of free workmen from Great Britain; who will take mulatto-apprentices, and prepare a resident hireling population. No proprietor would prefer what may be called joint-stock labour to hired or free labour, if the opportunity of choice existed: but, in all new countries, a planter must burden himself with the maintenance of a labourer for life, (that is, with the property over his servant;) in order to be supplied with labour. Still no good reason exists for any inequality of criminal rights between the owner and the slave; nor for any of those mortifying distinctions between different shades of colour, which have been recognized in too many colonial codes.

Mr. Koster's twenty-first chapter includes meritorious and conciliatory comments on the Treaties of Alliance, and of Commerce and Navigation, made between the crowns of Great Britain and Portugal, and signed at Rio de Janeiro in February 1810. We agree with the author in thinking that the stipulations are as equitable as they could be expected to be, under the circumstances: but the Portuguese have some just and weighty grounds for their complaint against the Alien-bill, the clauses of which are disgraceful to the legislation of a free country; and the provisions of which have occasionally been brought into action with a capricious, oppressive, and merciless impertinence.

In the Appendix, we find a curious dissertation on the Plants of Brazil, drawn up by order of the Prince Regent; in which the druggist and the trader, the physician and the botanist, will meet with useful information.

We are glad to observe a new edition of this agreeable and instructive volume announced; and we have only to lament that the author has not visited the southern departments of the Portuguese empire, and made himself as familiar with Rio de Janeiro as with Pernambuco. Perhaps he will undertake another voyage, and add, in a second volume, a description of the metropolitan city. Some doubt may arise whether its site has been wisely chosen; and whether a central situation, on the river of San Francisco, would not be more conducive to the rapid improvement and civilization of the whole country, than a station almost at the southern extremity of the land, so very remote from the original seats of settlement. The desiccated deserts between Seara and Recife scarcely deserve, however, the calculations of the sovereign: but it is perhaps now, while the station of authority remains unsettled, and while the roads of connection are still unformed, that it is best worth while to undertake a careful statistical survey, in order to ascertain the fittest place for a metropolis. The character of the entire nation will be found to depend eventually, in numerous particulars, on the nature of the place which the sovereign chooses for his residence. Government is always regulated by the public opinion of the city in which it is carried on; and if this city stands on a navigable river, like the Thames, commerce will have great sway over its councils; — if it stands, like Paris, far inland, and forms in fact a nest of colleges and universities, administration will be the foot-ball of literature and the slave of philosophy.

Eight coloured plates adorn this work, besides a plan of the port of Pernambuco and a map of the author's route. Their subjects are, a jangada; mode of crossing a river; a sertanejo, or travelling herdsman; a fishing canoe; a lady in a sedan chair, going to visit; a cotton carrier; a sugar-mill; and a planter with his wife on a journey.

ART. III Mr. Hallam's *View of the State of Europe during th* *Middle Ages.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 14.]

IN his seventh chapter, which commences Vol. II., Mr. Halla has sketched with great distinctness and precision the hi tory of the ecclesiastical power during the Middle Ages. Tl gradual encroachments of the church of Rome on the gener rights of mankind, till they terminated in the establishme of an absolute and irresistible authority both over monarc and over their subjects, are pourtrayed by a masterly han a spirit of research is evident in the whole chapter; a the love of truth, which alone embalms the worth of histor is conspicuously distinguished.

Among the causes which tended greatly to aggrandize t papal see, Mr. Hallam very justly reckons the instituti of the orders of Mendicant friars about the year 1216; a these new religious fraternities soon acquired an extraordina influence over the minds of men. In a superstitious ag nothing tends to make a stronger impression on the popula than the professed renunciation of all temporal advantage and the exterior practice of the most rigid abstemiousne and mortification. All the blessings of religion, which dazzl the mind in the prospect of futurity, are supposed peculiarl to belong to those who thus deprive themselves of prese enjoyments; and, at the same time, this deprivation produc a conviction of sincerity in the person, which has an inca culable influence in establishing his pretensions to more tha ordinary sanctity. The mendicant orders were prevente from possessing estates by the rules of their foundation, an were to look for support only in the alms and oblations c the pious. Of these orders, the two which are most cel brated were those of St. Dominic and St. Francis; and the soon excited such an enthusiastic feeling in their favour b the devout zeal which they displayed, that Matthew Par said of them in the year 1243, “ *Nullus fidelis, nisi prædica torum et minorum regatur consiliis, jam credit salvari.*” N one thought that he would go to heaven without the bene of their ghostly admonitions. Mr. Hallam compares t success of these Mendicant friars with that of the Engli Methodists; between whom we may certainly trace some stro features of resemblance.

‘ Not deviating from the faith of the church, but professi rather to teach it in greater purity, and to observe her ordinanc with greater regularity, while they imputed supineness and c ruption to the secular clergy, these mendicant friars drew rou

the

their sermons a multitude of such listeners as in all ages are attracted by similar means. They practised all the stratagems of itinerancy, preaching in public streets and administering the communion on a portable altar. Thirty years after their institution, an historian complains that the parish churches were deserted, that none confessed except to these friars, in short, that the regular discipline was subverted. This uncontrouled privilege of performing sacerdotal functions, which their modern antitypes assume for themselves, was conceded to the mendicant orders by the favour of Rome. Aware of the powerful support they might receive in turn, the pontiffs of the thirteenth century accumulated benefits upon the disciples of Francis and Dominic. They were exempted from episcopal authority; they were permitted to preach or hear confessions without leave of the ordinary, to accept of legacies, and to inter in their churches. Such privileges could not be granted without resistance from the other clergy; the bishops remonstrated; the University of Paris maintained a strenuous opposition: but their reluctance served only to protract the final decision. Boniface VIII. appears to have peremptorily established the privileges and immunities of the mendicant orders in 1295. It was naturally to be expected that the objects of such extensive favours would repay their benefactors by a more than usual obsequiousness 'and alacrity in their service. Accordingly, the Dominicans and Franciscans vied with each other in magnifying the papal supremacy. Many of these monks became eminent in canon law and scholastic theology. The great lawgiver of the schools, Thomas Aquinas, whose opinions the Dominicans especially treat as almost infallible, went into the exaggerated principles of his age in favour of the see of Rome. And as the professors of those sciences took nearly all the learning and logic of the times to their own share, it was hardly possible to repel their arguments by any direct reasoning. But this partiality of the new monastic orders to the Popes must chiefly be understood to apply to the thirteenth century; circumstances occurring in the next, which gave in some degree a different complexion to their dispositions in respect of the Holy See.' (Vol. ii. p. 67.)

In this chapter, Mr. Hallam has also detailed the encroachments of the church on the civil jurisdiction, and the successive attempts of the temporal power to recover its authority. The division between the civil and the ecclesiastical courts, which took place at a very early period of our history, still continues to make a sort of anomaly in the jurisprudence of this country; and the ecclesiastical courts still exercise a cognizance in questions which would more properly be referred to the civil authorities. Two kinds of law ought not to be permitted to co-exist; for what but confusion and absurdity can be produced by the intermixture of two such heterogeneous codes as the canon and the statute-law? The spiritual jurisdiction, which is retained by our ecclesiastical courts, is only a vestige of antient usurpation, which ought not to be suffered to disgrace the institutions of a more enlightened period.

At the commencement of the twelfth century, the ecclesiastical jurisdiction had been elevated to such a pitch that it seemed likely to acquire 'an exclusive supremacy over all persons and causes;' and the church spared no pains to bring every question, howsoever little blended with spiritual considerations, within the pale of its authority. All spiritual persons claimed certain immunities; and, as even the *tonsure* was reckoned sufficient to confer some degree of sanctity on the individual, it was scarcely possible to draw a line of demarcation within which the privileges of holy church might be circumscribed. 'The bishops,' says Mr. Hallam, 'gave the tonsure indiscriminately, in order to swell the lists of their subjects.'—'Orphans and widows, the stranger and the poor, the pilgrim and the leper, under the appellation of persons in distress (*miserabiles personæ*) came within the peculiar cognizance and protection of the church; nor could they be sued before any lay tribunal. And the whole body of crusaders, or such as merely took the vow of engaging in a crusade, enjoyed the same clerical privileges.'

As spiritual causes were agreed to belong only to the spiritual tribunal, the word was sufficiently indefinite to allow the utmost latitude of interpretation which the favourers of ecclesiastical domination could desire; and no pains were spared by the spiritual tribunals to establish the supremacy of their jurisdiction. Thus 'they pretended a right to supply the defects, the doubts, or the negligence of temporal judges;' and they usurped the exclusive judgment of some offences which are purely criminal, as well as of others which had a mixture of civil and criminal delinquency. Thus perjury, sacrilege, usury, incest, and adultery, were confined to the cognizance of the ecclesiastical courts; and, as the clergy had, at one time, established their exemption from the criminal justice of the state, this immunity often served to protect spiritual persons from the punishment due to their crimes. The broad shield of ecclesiastical privilege was thrown over the most atrocious enormities; and the church itself, which could always absolve from its own censures, seldom inflicted any heavier punishment on offenders than a temporary confinement. The civil and the ecclesiastical laws, therefore, formed (as it were) two discordant and irreconcileable authorities in the heart of the state; becoming productive of the most serious disorders and the most mischievous effects. Henry II. was the first monarch who heartily endeavoured to lower the pride of ecclesiastical privilege, and to subject spiritual persons to the civil jurisdiction; and though the attempts which he made were but partially accomplished, they were prosecuted with more success in the following reigns.

The arrogant pretensions of that monstrous anomaly of ecclesiastical power, which had been established at Rome in the general ignorance of mankind, reached their highest pitch of extravagance in the papacy of Boniface VIII.; who, during his violent dissensions with Philip the Fair of France, published his famous constitution, named *Unam Sanctam*, in which he had declared the paramount jurisdiction of the Holy See over every human being to be a necessary article of belief. "*Porro*," said the aspiring priest, "*subesse Romano pontifici omni humanæ creaturæ declaramus, dicimus, definimus, et pronuntiamus omnino esse de necessitate fidei.*" The Roman pontiff, however, had now strained the force of imposition to the utmost degree of endurance; and, from this period, an hostility to his tyrannical usurpation slowly and almost imperceptibly arose in the minds of men, till the charm by which they had been so long enthralled was ultimately dissolved. Imposition and credulity, as well as oppression and endurance, have their prescribed limits, beyond which they cannot pass; nor can art and violence for ever tyrannize over simplicity and patience.

In the account which Mr. Hallam gives of the Council of Constance, held in the year 1414, he truly remarks that the principles which were so boldly promulgated in this assembly may be properly called the Whig Principles of the Catholic Church. This famous Council not only deposed the legitimate Pope John XXIII., but resolved that every Pope was obliged to submit to a general council in matters of faith, and was liable to punishment if he refused obedience to its determinations.

'The constitutional History of England' forms the subject of Mr. Hallam's next chapter, which is distributed into three sections, and occupies a large part of the second volume. On the whole, we regard this as the most valuable portion of the work, though it is not that which the general reader will find the most interesting, It displays a much deeper insight into the subject than we find in either Blackstone or Millar. It is not made up of a superficial theory, formed from a few scattered facts, and evincing only a scanty and imperfect information, but it evidently manifests profound and comprehensive knowlege, and displays great industry and copious learning. Both the lawyer and the statesman may profit by the perusal of it, and we particularly recommend it to those who have formed very extravagant notions of the state of English liberty in antient times.

Some of the more violent but ill-informed advocates of popular rights, in the present day, have talked as if the turbulent periods of the Saxon history contained the most perfect model of representative government and civil liberty: but no instance of representative government can be found in the Saxon times; and Mr. Hallam has well remarked that 'the liberties of the Anglo-saxon thanes were chiefly secured, next to their swords and their free spirits, by the inestimable right of deciding civil and criminal suits in their own county-court.' This admirable institution, which survived the conquest, contributed 'in no small degree to fix the liberties of England upon a broad and popular basis by limiting the feudal aristocracy.'

No clear and indisputable instance of popular representation occurs till the year 1265, in the forty-ninth of Henry III., when that monarch was a prisoner in the hands of Simon de Montfort: but writs were issued in his name to all the sheriffs, directing them to return two knights for the body of their county, with two citizens, or burgesses, for every city and borough contained within it. It has not been distinctly ascertained whether the knights of shires were originally elected by none but the king's military tenants, or tenants *in capite*, or whether those who held by subinfeudation were permitted to vote. The tenants *in capite*, even at the period of which we are speaking, (1265,) must have been very numerous, owing to the division of the greater baronies which was occasioned by the frequent recurrence of female inheritances. Thus in Madox's *Baronia Anglica*, which is now lying on our table, we find instances of persons who held of the crown by the one or two hundredth or even a smaller part of a barony. In this work, (p. 56.) Madox mentions an instance, in which an individual held of the king in chief by the service of the three hundredth part of the barony of Hyset, in the county of Wilts. This was in the eighteenth year of Richard II. The descent of lands among female heirs must, at a very early period of our feudal history, have caused a considerable reduction in the size of the original baronies, and, consequently, have proportionally increased the number of the tenants *in capite*. When these tenants became too numerous and too poor personally to attend the regular or the extraordinary meetings of the greater barons, it would seem a very natural suggestion that a few should be deputed to be present for the rest; and a county-representation, or representation of the lesser barons, or freeholders, would thus almost spontaneously arise out of the necessity of the case, without the aid of much contrivance or deliberation. Antiquaries, however, differ very greatly in opinion with respect to the tenure of the freeholders, by whom the knights of shires were originally elected. Prynne is of one opinion, and Carte and Brady of another. Mr. Hallam says, 'If I might offer an opinion on so obscure a subject, I should be much inclined to believe that even from the reign of Edward the First, the election of knights by all freeholders in the county-court, without regard to tenure, was little if at all different from what it is at present.' (P. 224.)

Mr. H. considers it as highly questionable whether the commons possessed any legislative power beyond that of giving their consent to the imposition of taxes, during the reign of Edward I.: for, though the personal character of that monarch had enabled him to humble the nobility, he had not proportionally elevated the commons. In the time of Edward II., the more feeble character of the prince enabled the commons to assume the right of remonstrating; and, in the second year of that reign, we find them granting the twenty-fifth penny of their goods, "upon this condition, that the king should take advice and grant redress upon certain articles, wherein they are aggrieved." The author has very properly given a literal translation of this record; and we shall extract it, because it will shew that, whatever may be the political grievances of which we have reason to complain in the present day, they are of trivial moment compared with those which were practised in times which the artifice of some, or the folly of others, has described as more auspicious to the liberty of the subject and to the general welfare.

'"The good people of the kingdom, who are come hither to parliament, pray our lord the king that he will, if it please him, have regard to his poor subjects, who are much aggrieved by reason that they are not governed as they should be; especially as to the articles of the Great Charter; and for this, if it please him, they pray remedy. Besides which they pray their lord the king to hear what has long aggrieved his people, and still does so from day to day, on the part of those who call themselves his officers, and to amend it if he pleases." The articles, eleven in number, are to the following purport: 1. That the king's purveyors seize great quantities of victuals without payment; 2. That new customs are set on wine, cloth, and other imports; 3. That the current coin is not so good as formerly; 4, 5. That the steward and marshal enlarge their jurisdiction beyond measure to the oppression of the people; 6. That the commons find none to receive petitions addressed to the council; 7. That the collectors of the king's dues (pernours des prises) in towns and at fairs, take more than is lawful: 8. That men are delayed in their civil suits by writs of protection: 9. That felons escape punishment by procuring charters of pardon: 10. That the constables of the king's castles take cognizance of common pleas: 11. That the king's escheators oust men of lands held by good title under pretence of an inquest of office.' P. 244.)

It is evident from these articles of mis-government that, at this period, both property and person were in the highest degree insecure: that the subject was exposed to the most arbitrary spoliation: that judicial oppression was very prevalent: and that crimes might be committed with impunity. Certain persons are perpetually speaking about a period at which the constitution existed in a state of immaculate purity, and liberty was in its acme of glory: but it would be impossible to name any such period in any reign prior to the revolution of 1688.

In his view of our Constitutional History during the time of Edward III., Mr. Hallam exhibits a very satisfactory account of the improvement which the constitution received under the reign of that able and enterprizing monarch. This improvement is particularly exemplified in three grand instances, in which the two houses of parliament established the most wholesome limitations of the power of the crown, and the most efficacious safeguards for the liberties of the people. These were the acknowleged illegality of raising money without the consent of parliament; — or of making any alterations in the law without the concurrence of the two houses: and the right of the commons to investigate public abuses, and to impeach public counsellors. The above-mentioned principles of the constitution form, in fact, the great basis of English liberty; to which we have been principally indebted for the political pre-eminence that we have so long enjoyed above the other European nations. Edward III. has been often called the English Justinian, from the wise laws which were enacted during his reign: but it appears that these laws did not originate so much in the enlightened understanding of the monarch as in the patriotic views of the commons. Laws, says Mr. Hallam, referring to Sir Matthew Hale's History of the Common Law, p. 16., appear to have been drawn up and proposed to the two houses by the king down to the time of Edward I.: but it is evident, from the rolls of parliament during his government, that statutes were almost always founded on the petitions of the commons. 'These petitions, with the respective answers made to them in the king's name, were drawn up after the end of the session in the form of laws, and entered upon the statute-roll.' Moreover, while many good laws were made in this reign, it was characterized by a circumstance which we should rejoice to have seen imitated in the present times: — we mean that a great indisposition was shewn to multiply laws without necessity, or to swell the statute-book by a mass of frivolous or partial enactments. Tacitus somewhere says, *In pessimâ republicâ plurimæ leges.* Laws certainly may be so multiplied as to constitute the greatest grievance of which a state has to complain. Every unnecessary law is an evil; no obsolete law can possibly be a good; and happy would it be for the best interests of the state, if our present enormous pile of statutes were disencumbered of all that are superfluous and antiquated.

'In the reign of Edward II.' (observes the author, p. 262.) 'parliament had little share in resisting the government; much more was effected by the barons through risings of their feudal tenantry. Fifty years of authority' (in the reign of Edward III.) 'better respected, of law better enforced, had rendered these more perilous, and of a more violent appearance than formerly. A surer resource presented itself in the increased weight of the lower house in parliament. And this indirect aristocratical influence gave a surprising impulse to that assembly, and particularly tended to establish beyond question its controul over public abuses.'

The commons proceeded to display an increased energy during the minority of Richard II.; and, though they relaxed a little in their pretensions when that monarch assumed the personal exercise of his power, yet we find them steadily pursuing the reformation of grievances, and particularly resolute in driving an obnoxious minister, Michael de la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, from the royal councils. Mr. Hallam has followed Knyghton, who was a contemporary historian, in the account which he has given of this remarkable transaction.

'The king was loitering at his palace of Eltham, when he received a message from the two houses requesting the dismissal of Suffolk, since they had matter to allege against him, that they could not move while he kept the office of chancellor. Richard, with his usual intemperance, answered, that he would not for their request remove the meanest scullion from his kitchen. They returned a positive refusal to proceed on any public business, till the king should appear personally in parliament, and displace the chancellor. The king required forty knights to be deputed from the rest to inform him clearly of their wishes. But the commons declined a proposal in which they feared, or affected to fear, some treachery. At length the Duke of Gloucester and

Arundel Bishop of Ely were commissioned to speak the sense of parliament, and they delivered it, if we may still believe what we read, in very extraordinary language; asserting that there was an ancient statute, according to which, if the king absented himself from parliament without just cause during forty days, which he had now exceeded, every man might return without permission to his own country; and moreover there was another statute, and (as they might more truly say) a precedent of no remote date, that if a king, by bad counsel, or his own folly and obstinacy, alienated himself from his people, and would not govern according to the laws of the land and the advice of the peers, but madly and wantonly followed his own single will, it should be lawful for them with the common assent of the people to expel him from his throne, and to elevate to it some near kinsman of the royal blood.' (P. 273.)

This discourse produced the desired effect. The monarch paid due deference to the representations of his parliament, and dismissed his minister, who was subsequently impeached. — In the last two years of his reign, Richard, taking advantage of some dissensions among the principal nobility, seemed to have entirely thrown off the controul of parliament, and to have rendered himself absolute: but his assumption of tyranny was soon followed by his deposition; and his example, as well as that of other monarchs in English history, proves that an English king can never safely set himself above the restraints of law or the controul of parliament. An English monarch is most truly great when he keeps within those limits which the constitution prescribes for the exercise of his power; for, in proportion as he invades the liberty of the subject, he endangers the security of his throne. Liberty, which had made many vigorous shoots in this country under Edward III., and more particularly under his successor, continued to flourish with the three monarchs of the house of Lancaster. A disputed title is usually most favourable to liberty; since it naturally excites a stronger desire to conciliate the good will of the subject, and to rule by affection rather than by force. Hence English liberty has been very much promoted by the changes which imperious circumstances have rendered necessary in the order of succession, at different periods: such instances being forcible *mementos* to kings that their power is dependent on the good will of those over whom it is exercised; and that it can never be preserved with so much certainty as by a constant regard for the principles of liberty, and by the practice of an enlightened moderation.

Though Henry IV. was a monarch of much greater ability than his predecessor, he was more obsequious to the restrictions of parliament. In the eighth year of his reign, the parliament surpassed all which had gone before it in the number and boldness of its demands.

> 'The commons presented thirty-one articles, none of which the king ventured to refuse, though pressing very severely upon his prerogative. He was to name sixteen counsellors, by whose advice he was solely to be guided, none of them to be dismissed without conviction of misdemeanour. The chancellor and privy seal to pass no grants or other matter, contrary to law. Any persons about the court stirring up the king's or queen's minds against their subjects, and duly convicted thereof, to lose their offices, and be fined. The king's ordinary revenue was wholly appropriated to his household, and the payment of his debts; no grant of wardship or other profit to be made thereout, nor any forfeiture to be pardoned. The king "considering the wise government of other Christian princes, and conforming himself thereto," was to assign two days in the week for petitions, "it being an honourable and necessary thing that his lieges who desire to petition him should be heard." No judicial officer, nor any in the revenue or household, to enjoy his place for life or term of years. No petition to be presented to the king by any of his household at times when the council was not sitting. The council to determine nothing cognizable at common law, unless for a reasonable cause and with consent of the judges. The statutes regulating purveyance were affirmed; abuses of various kinds in the council and in courts of justice enumerated and forbidden; elections of knights for counties put under regulation. The council and officers of state were sworn to observe the common law, and all statutes, those especially just enacted.' (P. 301.)

The above provisions, adds the author, 'were of themselves a noble fabric of constitutional liberty, and hardly perhaps inferior to the petition of right under Charles I.' Before he had seen the admirable essay of Mr. Luders on the character of Henry V., Mr. Hallam had come to a similar conclusion. It is, indeed, in the highest degree improbable that a prince 'who was three years engaged in quelling the dangerous insurrection of Glendour, and who in the latter time of his father's reign presided at the council, was so lost in a cloud of low debauchery as common fame represents.' Mr. H. observes that he certainly was loved throughout his life, 'as so intrepid, affable and generous a temper well deserved; and this sentiment was heightened to admiration by successes still more rapid and dazzling than those of Edward III. During his reign, there scarcely appears any vestige of dissatisfaction in parliament; a circumstance very honourable, whether we ascribe it to the justice of his administration or to the affection of his people.'

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In this part of his work, which more exclusively relates to the English constitution, and in which we have already intimated that the author has displayed no ordinary share of historical learning, critical acumen, and philosophical moderation, truth has evidently been his object; and no prejudice has been permitted to give any obliquity to his mind during the pursuit. He has not exerted himself to support any pre-conceived hypothesis, or to give currency to any favourite theory: nor has he enlisted under the banners of any party; and, though his love of liberty is clearly manifested in the prosecution of his labours, yet it is not that kind of liberty which is never seen without the badge of faction. Whoever wishes to have a distinct conception of the origin and growth of the English constitution, of the difficulties which it had to encounter, and of the storms and tempests through which it has passed, will carefully peruse Mr. H.'s chapter on that subject; and we will venture to predict that he will rise from the perusal not only with his mind stored with more knowlege of the constitution, but with more just notions of the real value of English liberty, and a stronger attachment to that venerable fabric in which it has been so long enshrined. We do not know of any work in the English language in which so much constitutional information has been condensed.

Mr. H.'s last chapter, which is divided into two parts, is intitled 'On the State of Society in Europe during the Middle Ages.' It comprizes a variety of miscellaneous matter, and will be found very instructive as well as amusing The author every where manifests great copiousness of reading as the references at the bottom of his page intimate, and as the text itself shews. We will make a few extracts.—Th following are his remarks on the ignorance which ensued i Europe, on the disuse of the Latin language as the vernacul idiom of the people.

> 'When Latin had ceased to be a living language, the who treasury of knowledge was locked up from the eyes of the peopl The few who might have imbibed a taste for literature, if boo had been accessible to them, were reduced to abandon pursui that could only be cultivated through a kind of education n easily within their reach. Schools confined to cathedrals ar monasteries, and exclusively designed for the purposes of religio afforded no encouragement or opportunities to the laity.* T worst effect was that, as the newly formed languages were hard made use of in writing, Latin being still preserved in all le

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'* Hist. Littéraire de la France, t. vi. p. 20. Murato Dissert. xliii.'

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instruments and public correspondence, the very use of letters as well as of books was forgotten. For many centuries, to sum up the account of ignorance in a word, it was rare for a layman, of whatever rank, to know how to sign his name. [*] Their charters, till the use of seals became general, were subscribed with the mark of the cross. Still more extraordinary was it to find one who had any tincture of learning. Even admitting every indistinct commendation of a monkish biographer with whom a knowledge of church-music would pass for literature [†], we could make out a very short list of scholars. None certainly were more distinguished as such than Charlemagne and Alfred. But the former, unless we reject a very plain testimony, was incapable of writing [‡]; and Alfred found difficulty in making a translation from the pastoral instruction of St. Gregory, on account of his imperfect knowlege of Latin. [§]' (P. 434.)

Mr. Hallam argues that the sole hope for literature, during the dark period of the middle ages, depended on the Latin language; and that the preservation of it was principally owing to three circumstances, which may be classed among the corruptions of Christianity; viz. 'the papal supremacy, the monastic institutions, and the use of a Latin liturgy.' The papal supremacy produced a continual intercourse between Rome and the different nations of Europe, and rendered a common language necessary for the theological diplomacy of the church. The monasteries, while they afforded favourable opportunities for study, were for a long

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'[*] Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique, t. ii. p. 419. This became, the editors say, much less unusual about the end of the thirteenth century; a pretty late period! A few signatures to deeds appear in the fourteenth century; in the next they are more frequent. Ibid. The Emperor Frederic Barbarossa could not read, (Struvius, Corpus Hist. German. t. i. p. 377.); nor John King of Bohemia in the middle of the fourteenth century, (Sismondi, t. v. p. 205.); nor Philip the Hardy, King of France, although the son of St. Louis. (Velly, t. vi. p. 426.)

'[†] Louis IV., King of France, laughing at Fulk, count of Anjou, who sang anthems among the choristers of Tours, received the following pithy epistle from his learned vassal: *Noveritis, domine, quod rex illiteratus est asinus coronatus.* Gesta Consulum Andegavensium. In the same book, Geoffrey, father of our Henry II., is said to be *optime literatus;* which perhaps imports little more learning than his ancestor Fulk possessed.

'[‡] The passage in Eginhard, which has occasioned so much dispute, speaks for itself: *Tentabat et scribere, tabulasque et codicillos ad hoc in lecticulo sub cervicalibus circumferre solebat, ut, cum vacuum tempus esset, manum effigiandis literis assuefaceret; sed parum prosperè successit labor præposterus ac serò inchoatus.*

'[§] Spelman. *Vit. Alfred.* Append.'

interval the only secure depositories for books: but, says Mr. H., 'monasteries would probably have contributed very little towards the preservation of learning, if the Scriptures and the liturgy had been translated out of Latin, when that language ceased to be intelligible. Every rational principle of religious worship called for such a change, but it would have been made at the expence of posterity.'

Those persons who are prone to extol the comfortable state of antient times, and to depreciate the effects of civilization and refinement, would do well to read the remarks which Mr. Hallam has brought together on the state of domestic architecture, and the furniture of houses; both of which supply a safe criterion for judging of the general condition of any people in any period. In the fifteenth century, observes Mr. H.,

> 'A gentleman's house containing three or four beds was extraordinarily well provided, few probably had more than two. The walls were commonly bare, without wainscot or even plaister; except that some great houses were furnished with hangings, and that, perhaps, hardly so soon as the reign of Edward IV. It is unnecessary to add that neither libraries of books nor pictures could have found a place among furniture. Silver plate was very rare, and hardly used for the table. A few inventories of furniture that still remain exhibit a miserable deficiency.* And this was incomparably greater in private gentlemen's houses than among citizens; and especially foreign merchants. We have an inventory of the goods belonging to Contarini, a rich Venetian trader, at his house in St. Botolph's Lane, A.D. 1481. There appear to have been not less than ten beds, and glass windows are specially noticed as moveable furniture. No mention, however, is made of chairs or looking-glasses.† If we compare this account,

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'* See some curious valuations of furniture and stock in trade at Colchester in 1296 and 1301. Eden's Introduction to State of the Poor, p. 20. and 25. from the rolls of parliament. A carpenter's stock was valued at a shilling, and consisted of five tools. Other tradesmen were almost as poor; but a tanner's stock, if there is no mistake, was worth 9l. 17s. 10d.; more than ten times any other. Tanners were principal tradesmen, the chief part of dress being made of leather. A very few silver cups and spoons are the only articles of plate; and as the former are valued but at one or two shillings, they had, I suppose, but little silver on the rim.'

'† Nicholls's Illustrations, p. 119. In this work, among several interesting facts of the same class, we have another inventory of the goods of "John Port, late the king's servant," who died about 1524. He seems to have been a man of some consideration, and probably a merchant. The house consisted of a hall, parlour, buttery, count, however trifling in our estimation, with a similar inventory of furniture in Skipton Castle, the great honour of the earls of Cumberland, and among the most splendid mansions of the north, not at the same period, for I have not found any inventory of a nobleman's furniture so ancient, but in 1572, after almost a century of continual improvement, we shall be astonished at the inferior provision of the baronial residence. There were not more than seven or eight beds in this great castle: nor had any of the chambers either chairs, glasses, or carpets.' * (Pp. 503, 504.)

To the above-mentioned instances of deficiency in the commonest articles of domestic comfort or convenience, we may add that even chimneys were unknown in English cottages till the early part of Elizabeth's reign, when the condition of the peasantry experienced a rapid improvement.

Mr. Hallam has evinced great judgment and sagacity in developing the causes which, in the latter period of the Middle Ages, contributed to elevate man in the moral scale, to improve his character, and to meliorate his circumstances. The first of these causes was the cessation of personal servitude. The worth of a slave, both in moral qualities and in physical energy, must always be greatly inferior to that of a freeman. A more enlightened, regular, and efficient administration of the different judicial powers was another cause of moral improvement in the national habits and opinions. The growth of religious tenets, adverse to those of the established church,

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buttery, and kitchen, with two chambers, and one smaller, on the floor above; a napery or linen room, and three garrets, besides a shop, which was probably detached. There were five bedsteads in the house, and on the whole a great deal of furniture for those times; much more than I have seen in any other inventory. His plate is valued at 94l.; his jewels at 23l.; his funeral expences at 73l. 6s. 8d.'

'* Whitaker's History of Craven, p. 289. A better notion of the accommodations usual in the rank immediately below may be collected from two inventories published by Strutt, one of Mr. Fermor's house at Easton, the other Sir Adrian Foskewe's.—In the former the parlour had wainscot, a table, and a few chairs; the chambers above had two best beds, and there was one servant's bed: but the inferior servants had only mattresses on the floor. The best chambers had window-shutters and curtains. Mr. Fermor being a merchant was probably better supplied than the neighbouring gentry. His plate, however, consisted of only sixteen spoons, and a few goblets and ale-pots. Sir Adrian Foskewe's opulence appears to have been greater; he had a service of silver plate, and his parlour was furnished with hangings. This was in 1539; it is not to be imagined that a knight of the shire, a hundred years before, would have rivalled even this scanty provision of moveables.'

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tended to rouse the human mind from the state of intellectual hebetude in which it had long remained torpid and inert; and, though some of the early heresies were mingled with gross errors, or perturbed by the violence of fanaticism, yet they served at the time as salutary stimulants to awaken the dormant powers of intellectual existence. The institution of chivalry, as the author has clearly proved, was one of the best schools of moral discipline of which these ages could boast. Like the great and vivifying principles of religion and of liberty, that of chivalry, while it refined and elevated the character, tended to throw down the barrier of barbarism which had so long impeded the progress of civilized life. The author has expatiated with much taste and discrimination on this subject: but the more general cultivation of literature, during the last three or four of the Middle Ages, was among the most active causes of moral improvement in the state of man. The nature of Mr. Hallam's work did not call on him to give any general sketch of literary history, but he has delineated a few of its detached features with skilful brevity and precision: — for instances of which, we may refer to his characteristic portraitures of Dante and Petrarch.

We must, however, now take a reluctant leave of this interesting performance. We have allowed it to occupy a large space in our pages, because we consider it as a work of pre-eminent merit; and very superior to any historical composition which has issued from the English press for many years. Yet we must remark that the matter is superior to the style, which is frequently harsh and rugged; and the author is seldom happy when he attempts metaphor or ornament. He sometimes imitates the manner of Gibbon, but is then less pleasing because he is less natural. The general effect of imitation, indeed, is to impress on the mind the inferiority of the copy to the original. Mr. Hallam does, however, sometimes rival the historian of the Roman empire, in the luminous condensation of his matter: — this is no mean praise; and this is justly his due. We wish that we could have bestowed more approbation on the style: but this is a minor defect, and may hereafter be removed; while in the selection and combination of his materials, — in extent, variety, and accuracy of research, — in solidity of judgment, — in the good sense which characterises every part, — and in the unsophisticated candour which is shewn in discussing the most controverted topics, — we cannot name any contemporary publication by which the present volumes have been surpassed.

Art. IV. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture;* on Subjects relative to the Husbandry and Internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. VI. Part II.* and Vol. VII. 4to. 16s. and 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Nicol and Son.

Instead of repeating an apology for our late notice of these volumes, and for yielding to the necessity of confining our present report to the latter of the two, we refer to the introductory remarks in our review of the thirty-fourth volume of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, p. 173. vol. lxxxvi. N.S.

The first communication by Sir Charles Burrell, and the second by Mr. Curwen, give the result of *Soiling Cattle on Green Food.* Sir C. B. states that fifteen acres and a half of lucerne, clover, &c. kept fifty-one head of cattle during thirteen weeks and a half. Had these animals been pastured, they would have required thirty-five acres: so that twenty acres, being a larger quantity than that which was actually consumed, were thus spared for hay, and yielded very nearly thirty tons. The immense quantity of manure, also, thus obtained, is a decided addition to the superiority which the system possesses in other respects. — Mr. Curwen's experiment is detailed in a number of tables, so minute as to specify the daily increase of each animal's weight, and the exact quantity of straw, turnips, oil-cake, &c. &c. which was consumed. It was apprehended that confinement might injure the health of the cattle, but experiment has proved the fear to be groundless.

Perhaps no country exists in the world, in which the facilities of communication between place and place are so great as in England. The improvement of our roads, which now are broad, open, level, and kept in constant repair, — compared with the wretched state of them fifty or sixty years ago, when they were narrow, inclosed, full of ruts, and never mended, — is principally attributable to the stimulus of increased domestic trade; and, on the other hand, our domestic trade has derived no inconsiderable stimulus from the improvement of our roads: thus have they reciprocally operated in favour of each other. We have two papers before us on the construction of *Carriage-Wheels,* so as most to facilitate the labour of horses, and least to injure the state of the roads. Mr. Booth contends for the absolute prohibition of all wheels less than five inches broad; making no other exception than in favour of the *hind*-wheels of private carriages, which he would allow to be only three and a half. The scientific paper

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[*] For Part I. of Vol. VI. see M. R. Vol. lxii. p. 350.

of Mr. Cumming, who has before frequently written on the subject, enters more elaborately into it.

Half a century ago, when the "occupation" of the old pack-horse had not been entirely usurped by wheel-carriages, our roads were so narrow that the naves of wheels frequently rubbed against the banks on both sides; and all carriages, which had occasion to travel in these roads, were obliged to have their wheels so close to each other as to come within the old tracks or ruts. The wheels of all carts, waggons, &c. were then *fixed* on the ends of their axles, which of course revolved with them. Consequently, the axle was straight, while the wheels were perpendicular to the ground, parallel to each other, and had cylindrical rims. As the distance of wheels from each other was limited by the narrowness of our roads; and as the breadth of the body of the carriage was likewise limited by the distance of its wheels, beyond which it could not extend; when trade and traffic increased, a sensible inconvenience was experienced from the smallness of the carriages, which it became a great object to remedy. Accordingly, in course of time, the whole system of wheels and axles was altered. The first improvement was to *fix the axle*, and make the wheels revolve independently of it; in consequence of which, it was no longer necessary that the former should be straight and the latter perpendicular. By bending the two ends of the axle downwards, the wheels were made to *splay*, that is, to stand wider from each other at the top than at the bottom; and thus room was gained for enlarging the body of the carriage without widening the old track of the wheels. It is obvious, however, that by this construction the wheels must converge as much below their axle as they diverge above it; the line from the centre of gravity therefore is sooner thrown beyond the line of the base; and the carriage is in consequence more liable to be upset. This dangerous inconvenience suggested an important improvement, namely, that of *dishing* the wheels, as it is called, by inserting the spokes obliquely into the nave, in such a manner that each spoke stands upright when it comes immediately below the axle. This insertion of the spokes gives the wheel a concave or *dish-like* appearance: they are in a very favourable position to sustain perpendicular pressure: while they give additional room to the carriage above the axle, and additional stability to it below, by adding to the breadth of its base. Still, a great disadvantage attends the bent axle; namely, that, in order to have an equal bearing on the whole breadth of the wheel, its rim must be conical or spherical. Before the increase of domestic commerce required the transit of very heavy loads, and when narrow wheels were in use, the additional resistance occasioned by the conical rim, which necessarily followed the bent axle, was of less consequence than it is now that heavy waggons, with wheels from fourteen to sixteen inches broad, travel daily from London to all parts of the kingdom.

'Whoever has noticed,' says Mr. Cumming, 'the effects of compression and induration on materials of old roads that have lain some years undisturbed, will know how to prize those properties of the cylindrical wheels, that are so favourable to consolidation and induration, and that are peculiar to that shape alone. There are two general properties peculiar to the cylindrical wheel, in this respect: all cylindrical wheels apply flatly to the tracks of each other; and all their pressure tends to consolidation, without lateral pressure, or any tendency to break the texture of the materials on which they roll, after the track has been once formed.

'But if wheels are made convex, or rounded on the sole, they no longer have the properties of the cylinder; on hard roads, convex wheels bear only on a narrow part of their rim; and the intensity of the pressure is greater, as the bearing of the wheel is narrower; and if the surface of the roads yields to the pressure of the wheel, it acts laterally more or less according to the convexity or rotundity of the rim; and this lateral action tends to disturb and break the materials on which they roll, and to prevent cohesion and induration: and moreover, they form the surface of the road into flutes, which prevent the water from draining down the sides of the convex road; and the materials that are forced out of the flutes or tracks of the rounded sole, form a ridge or protuberance on each bank or side of the flute, which prevents the water gaining admission into the track, and it is thus detained on the surface, and, mixing with the loose materials, forms sludge; and the pernicious effects of sludge on the road are too well known to require further explanation.'

Bent axles, therefore, in requiring the conical rim, have produced an enormous evil; which might not have been anticipated or even detected at first, and at all events which could not have been remedied while the roads were too narrow for broader carriages: but, now that they are broad enough for carriages of any width, a recurrence to the straight axle and the cylindrical rim is highly desirable: particularly if every advantage of strength, &c., which the arcular form of the dished wheel and bent axle gives, may, as Mr. Cumming says it may, be obtained in a much higher degree with the straight axle, upright wheel, and *alternate spokes*, which form a double dishing to every wheel. The convexity of our roads is too slight to constitute a practical objection to cylindrical rims.

The late Mr. Edgeworth communicated a paper (in Part II. of Vol. VII.) *On the Application of Springs to Carriages of Burthen.* The use of elasticity is well known in relieving the sudden and violent *jerks* which carriages experience on rough and bad roads; and carriages on springs not only bear their burthens more evenly than those which are not elastic, but they are positively stronger, inasmuch as they endure shocks without injury by which the latter would be shattered to pieces. Mr. Edgeworth constructed some one-horse carts, with wooden elliptical springs, which he found had likewise an easier draft for the horse than others of the same weight without them; and, from some experiments, he was led to the conclusion that the advantage of springs in facilitating draft increases in proportion to the velocity with which the carriage moves. Thus, the advantage of springs to a carriage moving at the rate of two miles in an hour is three to one; and, when moving at the rate of four miles an hour, it is rather more than five to one. The machine for comparing the drafts is very simple: it is a carriage bearing a large horizontal pulley, and a rope passes round this pulley, the ends of which are tied to the two carriages that are to be compared. When this machine is drawn forwards, the two carriages must follow it; and, being of equal weights, if they are equally well constructed, they must move together *pari passu.* If either be inferior to the other in construction, it will move more slowly till the other overtakes the machine which has the pulley. If we replace them, and load the best of the two till its velocity is reduced to a level with the worse, the comparative advantage is thus ascertained by the additional weight which either will bear without requiring additional draft.

Mr. Pitt's *Calculations respecting the Produce of Land in Articles of Human Consumption* we must consider as rather curious than useful: but his preference of the cow to other animals is sanctioned by Mr. Cramp's paper, giving an account of a nett profit which he derived of 59l. 17s. 9d. from a single cow, in the space of fifty-seven weeks.

Mr. Robertson deserved the gold medal for *draining Five Hundred Acres of Land*, in the course of three months, at an expence of 1688l.; and the same may be said of Mr. Sheriff, for *an Embankment of* 1580 *running Yards* against the sea: by which he has brought into culture 108 acres of valuable land, that never before received a plough or bore a crop. Peaceful are the invasions of old Ocean's territory, and bloodless are the victories obtained! Neptune may shake his trident, and the Nereids wring their dripping locks: but no *earthly* widows' sighs are heard, no *earthly* orphans' tears are shed, to sully the glory or embitter the triumph of the conqueror.

Mr. Burrows has supplied two papers *on the Cultivation of Carrots*, with which roots he has fed his horses for several years, giving them no corn and a diminished quantity of hay:—for the fattening of hogs and bullocks, they may likewise be used with the greatest advantage. Perhaps, however, like most bulbous-rooted plants, they are ill adapted to strong tenacious lands, however successfully they may be cultivated on light and sandy soils. The most effectual encouragement that we can give to the culture of the carrot, leaving out the detail, is to present the result of Mr. Burrows's practice during three successive years:

	per Acre.				per Acre.		
	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
Expence in the 1st year on 6 acres	10	8	7	Nett profit, 1st year	32	16	0
——— 2d year on 4 acres	10	6	2¾	———, 2d year	24	3	4¾
——— 3d year on 14 acres	11	4	9	———, 3d year	26	15	6

The average expence per acre was 10l. 13s. 2¼d.; and the average profit, deducting every cost of seed, tillage, tythe, rent, carting, &c. &c. was not less than 27l. 18s. 3½d. per acre. Mr. Burrows allows 70 lbs. daily to each horse. Cows thrive well on carrots, and give abundant milk; and both sheep and bullocks eat them, top and root. A short account of Mr. B.'s mode of tillage may be desirable. He ploughs a wheat stubble for the first time in autumn: once again in February; and a third time, setting on about 16 loads of manure per acre, in the last week of March or the first week of April, when the seed is sown. Eight or ten pounds of *new* seed are sown per acre, which has undergone a preparation for the purpose of promoting a rapid vegetation after it has been committed to the ground. Mr. B. collects a quantity of fine mould, or sand, and mixes it with the seed a fortnight before it is used, in the proportion of about 8 or 10 lbs. of the latter with two bushels of the former. These mixed heaps are then turned over daily, the outside being previously sprinkled with water whenever they are turned. A similar preparation would tend, perhaps, to invigorate and accelerate the vegetation of turnip-seed, and free it more early from the fly. In about six weeks, the carrots are ready for the first hoeing with a four-inch hoe: the second immediately succeeds with one of six inches; and the carrots may be left from nine inches to a foot asunder. Three or four hoeings may be necessary to make the crop perfectly clear: the expence of which is about 30s. an acre. The carrots are taken up in the last week of October with three-pronged forks, and the cost is about a guinea per acre on a crop consisting of not less than seven or eight hundred bushels. — For a great variety of particulars, useful to the practical farmer, we must refer to the volume itself; and especially to the latter paper, in which a few errata in Mr. B.'s earlier management are corrected.

Mr. Worthington has given the result of an *Experiment on Oats;* shewing with what a small quantity of seed-oats an abundant produce may be obtained under good management. It was a solitary experiment, and on a very small scale: but, if we consider how immense is the annual consumption of corn in this kingdom for seed only, amounting to the sterling value of several millions, economy of seed, as far as it can be exercised with perfect security respecting the crop, is of the first importance. On an acre and rather more than a half ($\frac{9}{16}$), after *one* ploughing, rolling, and harrowing, Mr. W. drilled, at intervals of thirty inches, nine quarts of oats in single rows. They were horse-hoed, the soil being first turned *from* the plants and afterward returned *to* them. In consequence of violent and continued rains at harvest, a very large quantity appears to have been shelled on the earth: notwithstanding which, seventy-four Winchester bushels were yielded from these nine quarts. Some of the heads produced 600 grains, and the average was 400; the highest plant measured five feet ten inches, the circumference of the longest stems measured an inch, and the broadest leaves were an inch and a half. The soil is a combination of binding clay with sharp gravel, and is stoney; and during the preceding spring it had been deeply and permanently flooded with the back-water of the Severn. It seems probable that the deposition of some fertilizing materials may have contributed to the luxuriance of the produce in this instance: but Mr. Worthington thinks, on the contrary, that the land was impoverished and chilled by the waters, which left no remunerating sediment in their retreat. — Mr. W. has added to this communication some remarks on the nature and cure of the foot-rot in sheep: a complaint which he pronounces to be actively infectious. Separation of the sound from the diseased animals is the first step; and a second very important precaution is not to pasture sound sheep on the soil already tainted by others which are *not* sound, because they will surely imbibe the infection. The cure is effected by 'scraping with a knife, and occasionally cutting off the foul and putrid portion of the foot, whether of the interior softer parts or of the hoof. After this, (says Mr. W.) I scour all the surfaces (now besmeared with a bloody sanies) with a mixture of muriated antimony, tincture of benzoin, and tincture of myrrh, equal parts each; and then apply, with a hair-pencil, to the more ragged and diseased parts, if such have escaped the knife, a little muriated antimony, alone. Even if such parts are not very discernible, I would recommend a slight wash of muriated antimony, to be passed over the surfaces which have been previously scoured with the mixture just described. Occasionally I have confined my sheep, when under the disease, for two or three days and nights, in a covered building, and sprinkled the floor thinly with quick lime.' When the feet have been dressed, they should not be suffered to get wet for a few hours: indeed, dry lodging is at all times essential to the health of sheep.

In this volume we find several communications on the subject of *Irrigation*, by Mr. Beck, Mr. Purdy, Mr. Rigby, Mr. Shank, and Don Roderigo de Souza Continho: the last of whom supplies an elaborate account, which defies abridgement, and would be utterly unintelligible without the assistance of the plates, of the machinery employed and the manner practised in Piedmont and Lombardy. This communication was given to Mr. Arthur Young, many years ago, by Don Roderigo, (then Portuguese minister at the court of Turin,) in the Italian language, from which it is translated into English. — Mr. Beck, Mr. Purdy, and Mr. Rigby, bear unanimous testimony to the great increase of value which irrigation confers on meadow-land. The original expence is very considerable, being twenty or thirty pounds per acre, or even more, according to situation and circumstances. — Mr. Beck, stimulated by the example and liberality of his landlord, Mr. Coke, who may be denominated the first agriculturist in this kingdom; who has made a garden of many thousand acres around his residence; whose princely munificence has encouraged the farmer and enriched his country; who may as justly boast of Holkham that he found it a heath and left it a garden, as Augustus did of Rome that he found it of brick and left it of marble; — Mr. Beck, we say, under the just confidence that such a landlord would allow him to reap the entire advantage of his own improvements, did not hesitate in the space of two years to lay out thirty pounds per acre on the irrigation of thirty-seven acres of land. This space was previously a mere bog and swamp, covered with rushes, and not worth above five shillings per acre: but Mr. Beck says that he would rather give five guineas an acre now than be without it.

'I begin to water them the latter end of October, and continue the watering 'till February; then if any fine days, the water is taken off, and put on again in the evening: indeed the principle is, that, whenever the air is warmer than the water, the latter is taken off. I begin feeding them about the 10th of March quite close, then water them again, and feed them 'till about the 10th of May, when they are (after being watered two or three days) shut up for mowing in six or seven weeks. They produce on an average two tons and a half of good hay per acre. After the hay is off they are watered again, and fed with fatting sheep, cows, and young cattle: I don't put on any other than fatting sheep, as there is no doubt of their rotting if watered after the hay is off; but in feeding them in the spring they are perfectly safe, and very healthy for sheep of every description. The hay is good for cows, producing much milk. I have fed my breeding ewes with it frequently, and they do well, which enables me to manure my arable land to much advantage. I calculate that an acre of water-meadow produces in every way manure sufficient for an acre of arable.'

Mr. Shepherd's *Machine for weighing live Cattle* is represented as being portable; and such a machine is of advantage in putting the farmer on a level with the butcher, who in his dealings is commonly more than a match for him.

The *Barberry* has the name of being a very bad neighbour to corn, not only in this country but on the Continent; and Mr. L. E. Windt has combined a number of observations, experiments, and testimonies, confirming this disgraceful character. Indeed, the evidences are so numerous and powerful, that to doubt concerning the injurious effects of the barberry-bush would now seem a pertinacious scepticism. Mr. Windt has contented himself with accumulating facts, and for these we are obliged to him: but he has not the slightest curiosity to inquire in what manner the mischief is diffused. Sir Joseph Banks is probably correct in his supposition that the barberry-bush is often attacked by the same minute parasitic fungus which he considers as the cause of mildew, and that it is thence transferred, by the dispersion of its seed, to wheat. The same fungus seizes the wheat and the barberry: but we are of opinion that the wheat is previously in an unhealthy state, or this fungus would not be able to attach itself to it. We have seen, in the fifteenth number of *The Pamphleteer*, some "Remarks on the Mildew of Wheat and the Choice of Seed-Corn, particularly in reference to the Hypothesis of Sir Joseph Banks;" and, concurring with those remarks, we refer such of our readers to them as feel disposed to give their attention to the subject.

Mr. Duncombe has related the particulars of culture, expence, and produce, in improving a considerable quantity of *Waste Land*. The efforts of spirited individuals, in imparting fertility to unproductive wastes, cannot be too highly applauded; and mother-earth is grateful, repaying with prompt and ample interest all the cost and labour which man bestows on her.

Our shrubberies do not boast a more elegant and ornamental plant than the *Acacia:* its velvet foliage breaking into masses, and its pendent blossoms breathing the most delicate perfume, invite the idler to its shades and gratify his senses. The Rev. Mr. Willis attributes also to its character some qualities, of more solid excellence; and if it be indeed one of the most valuable as well as the most beautiful of trees, we shall have an inducement to raise it much more abundantly in our plantations than we do at present. Mr. W. asserts that, in some soils, the Acacia equals the Poplar and the Willow in rapidity of growth; possessing, at the same time, the durability and close texture of the Yew and the Box. 'The coarser parts of this timber (he says) I have applied to farming and other outdoor purposes, which I find equal to Oak in its wear and tear;' while the finer parts are well adapted to cabinet-purposes, from the beauty of its feathering and the closeness of its grain. Timber of every description is much lower in price now than it was some time ago: but, when Mr. W. wrote his paper, he said that his carpenter had offered him 3s. 6d. a foot for Acacia planks, an inch and a quarter thick. In the year 1782 he planted, on what he calls a 'rock of gravel,' Firs, Lombardy Poplars, Willows, and Acacias; almost despairing that vegetation could be sustained on so arid and unpromising a situation: eight years ago, however, one of the Poplars measured eight feet two inches in circumference, and had risen to 70 feet in height; and from his Acacias he made several book-cases, and other pieces of ornamental furniture. It is the *Gleditsia Polysperma*, three-thorned Acacia, common in most parts of North America, where it is known by the name of the *Honey-locust*, that Mr. Willis recommends: his own trees were planted in a pure gravel, trenched three feet deep, but without a particle of mould: the tree, however, is of so hardy a nature, that it prospers on soils the most opposite and in situations the most unpromising.

'There are now growing in the gardens of Ibsley, near Ringwood, in a bank of gravel, some trees of this species, in a very healthy growing state.

'There are also some of this species growing in a strong loamy soil at North End, near Ringwood: they certainly grow more vigorously than those on gravel, and promise to be very valuable trees. The largest tree growing in this country is on a bed of pure chalk, in the gardens of Whitsbury-house, near Fordingbridge, belonging to Lord Shaftesbury.

'In the grounds of the Reverend John Helyar, at Turnham, in Dorsetshire, an acacia was planted as a shrub, in the front of a rustic cell, but its increase was so prodigious and rapid, that it overcame all opposition of pruning: in a few years this tree has overshadowed the grotto, and completely hid it from the parlour windows; but I must observe, that this luxuriant acacia is now growing in a bed of flints intermixed with chalk; and I am told the hole, in which it was planted, filled with water the instant it was dug.

'Here it may be useful for the planter, that I should repeat again most distinctly, that at Sopley and Ibsley, the acacia grew on a pure gravel; at North End, in a strong soil; at Whitsbury, on a chalk; at Turnham, in a bed of flints, through which runs a continual stream of water: these instances are strong proofs of what I premised, that the acacia will flourish on the most unpromising soils.

'In America, where this beautiful tree is indigenous, it is every where seen in the wilderness, on the plain, in the valley, on the mountain. It is found to the southward on the borders of the gigantic Missisippi; and in the United States, from Georgia to New Hampshire. Lord Valentia, in his Travels through Abyssinia and Egypt, lately published, says, that the villages and gardens, as they proceeded, were protected by a fence, formed from large branches of the thorny acacia; and in other places of this entertaining work, we find his Lordship informing us, that the acacia grew to the height of forty feet in some situations, and nearly covered the face of some countries they travelled through. Thus it appears to agree with most soils in any exposition, and with the extremes of hot and cold climates.'

In America, where the Acacia is indigenous, it is in great repute for ship-building; particularly, it seems, in making *trunnels* or pins, which bolt the outside planks to the inside timbers.

To Mr. Willis we are also indebted (in Part II. of this volume) for a communication *On the Culture of Wheat, so as to prevent the Necessity of Importation.* It is creditable in no common degree to the liberality of this clergyman, that he frankly acknowleges tythes to be the most prominent discouragement to the increase of grain. It is as a question of expediency, and not of right, that this subject must be considered: indeed it is, generally speaking, so considered practically: for, in nine cases out of ten, the clergyman actually foregoes a portion of those ecclesiastical dues which he has a legal right to claim, in order to live with his parishioners on terms of amity and good feeling. He makes this sacrifice cheerfully, and without a boast; bending with a good grace to the known general judgment of mankind, which would stamp an opposite conduct with the reproach of rapacity.

This conduct is to be expected from a class of society whose minds and manners are so cultivated as those of the clergy, taken in a body; and, in point of fact, we observe that, when the revenues of the church are in the hands of lay impropriators, whose minds are often less cultivated, and whose feelings are not so harmoniously attuned, they grind the farmer much closer, frequently exacting a composition to the utmost "penalty of the bond." The plan suggested by Mr. Willis is this: — suppose the annual value of a living, at this period, to be 500l.; to meet the fluctuating price of grain, let the average of the Gazette-prices for every half year determine the quantum to be paid in lieu of tythes: the two churchwardens to be empowered by act of parliament to levy by a half-yearly rate the supposed 250l. on all occupiers of land within their parish, but always regulating their tythe-rate by the average-prices in the Gazette. As an encouragement to this plan, Mr. W. assures us that he has for several years adopted it, by a voluntary arrangement with his own parishioners, to the entire satisfaction of all parties. It avoids all grinding and screwing on one side, all bickerings and grumbling on the other. Tythes taken in kind have an obvious and decided tendency to check tillage, and to re-convert an arable farm into pasture: of which a diminished growth of grain and an increased necessity for a corresponding importation are the natural consequences.

If tythes present an obstacle to agriculture, capital, inclosure-bills, and leases, are essential to its positive encouragement. With respect to the first, we have abundance. Notwithstanding the large and sudden fortunes which commerce with her fairy wand creates, we have still so much old baronial pride among us, that a long retinue of tenantry, — even at three per cent., — in the annual hall of audit, confers greater pleasure than the more profitable columns of a merchant's ledger. Indeed, agriculture has been so much the rage of late years that capital, even to redundance, has in some instances been bestowed on it; to redundance, we say, wherever it has been attempted to subdue an irredeemable sterility of soil, and wherever the expence of culture exceeds the profit. The necessity of leases is past all dispute: no man deserves a good tenant, and he certainly cannot expect one, who refuses to him a liberal and a long lease. The landlord, the tenant, and the public, all suffer from that careless and exhausting system of husbandry which the want of leases necessarily produces. — As to a General Inclosure-Bill, it is very well known that all the efforts of the Board of Agriculture, backed by the urgent and concurring opinion of every County-Report throughout the kingdom, have been hitherto insufficient to counteract the influence of those clerks or others who would suffer by the measure in their fees and perquisites of office! This is a disgraceful fact.

Some useful hints on *the Construction of Gates*, for the purposes of farms, are to be found in an Essay on that subject, by Mr. Salmon; and, in another paper, Sir John Sinclair has done well in communicating the *Agricultural Hints* which he picked up from many intelligent farmers, whom he met at one of the Holkham Sheep-shews. Forty or fifty years ago, the whole country in that neighbourhood, from Wells to Lynn, in general grew nothing better than rye: when wheat was attempted, four or five bushels per acre formed about the average-produce; and, at that time, no Norfolk farmer had more than half a sheep per acre of the Norfolk breed! Instead of two acres to one sheep, we have now at least two sheep (generally South-down) to one acre; and instead of rye we produce barley and wheat in the greatest abundance. The soil at Holkham and in the neighbourhood is generally light, and naturally, we imagine, not very fertile: the farmers drill their wheat at nine inches; and Mr. Coke puts in from four to five bushels of seed per acre, as the season advances. In some conversation with him, last year, on the use of what appeared so superfluous a quantity of seed, it being observed that there must be a great many ears which could never obtain their full growth, we learn that Mr. Coke stated that long experience had convinced him that the seed was not too much; and that the under-ears of wheat were well known by the millers to yield a larger proportion of flour per bushel than the others.

Mr. Rodwell has given the *Treatment and Produce of a Field of Lucerne*, which amply confirms the productiveness of that grass when sown on light dry soils, and well manured.

Part I. of Vol. VII. includes also some *Particulars of Merino Sheep* imported by Mr. Downie into Scotland; a paper on *the Destruction of Weeds*, by Mr. Brodie; and another *on Hay-making in general, and particularly in wet Weather*, by Mr. Milner. — In a future article, we shall attend to the contents of Part II. that have not already been specified.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

Art. V. *A Compendium of Medical Practice*, illustrated by interesting and instructive Cases; and by Practical, Pathological, and Physiological Observations; by James Bedingfield, Surgeon, &c. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Highley and Son.

It appears that Mr. Bedingfield occupied for some time the situation of surgeon to the Bristol Infirmary, and in this volume he professes to exhibit an epitome of the medical practice of that institution during the last five years. He seems to have been a careful and diligent observer of the events daily passing around him, and, in many cases at least, to have united a judicious generalization of facts to the mere consideration of the phænomena. He classes the diseases, respecting which he treats, in eight sections, mostly arranged according to the organs of the body which they affect: a mode to which many objections will present themselves, but which, on the other hand, possesses the advantage of being perfectly intelligible, and of not involving any speculative doctrines on the theory of the morbid affections described.

The first section, *on Diseases of the Brain*, &c. contains an account of painful affections of the scalp, *tinea capitis*, *hydrocephalus externus* and *internus*, *apoplexia*, *hemiplegia*, *phrenitis*, inflammation of the *pia mater*, *cerebri abscessus*, *epilepsia*, *chorea sancti viti*, *tetanus*, and *tic douloreux*; and the section concludes with a physiological chapter on the functions of the brain. Some of the more important of these affections are treated considerably in detail, and illustrated by a number of cases. As being on all accounts one of the most interesting, we shall select *Hydrocephalus internus*. When this disease is once fully developed, medicine can prove of little or no avail; and therefore it is our business to watch its earliest approaches, or, which is still preferable, the pre-disposition that lays a foundation for it, or enables circumstances otherwise trivial to produce it. The author remarks;

> 'All the patients whose cases I have related were highly tainted with scrophula, and it is in scrophulous habits that I have uniformly observed the disease to occur.
>
> 'In scrophulous patients a peculiar sensibility or irritability of mind is very observable, and to this irritability of mind, I am inclined to attribute the susceptibility of these patients to the disease. It may perhaps be considered the predisposing cause.
>
> 'Parts predisposed to disease, are more easily excited into sympathetic action with diseased parts, however remote they may be from them, than healthy parts although placed in their immediate vicinity. It is on this account that local irritation proves so frequently the cause of Hydrocephalus Internus.'

He decidedly gives it as his opinion that this is rarely an idiopathic disease; that the deposition of serous fluid depends on a sympathetic inflammation of the brain; and that the patient is predisposed to this sympathetic inflammation by an irritability of mind, which generally exists in scrophulous constitutions. We are inclined to admit some foundation for this hypothesis, and more especially for the connection between water in the head and a deranged state of the alimentary canal; yet we are scarcely prepared to go the full length of Mr. Bedingfield's doctrine, and suppose that amputation of the thigh, the operation for the hare-lip, or diseased vertebræ, can be 'the immediate cause' of the effusion.

Although, however, we may differ from Mr. B. respecting the cause of the disease, or rather respecting the degree in which certain causes operate in its production, we generally agree with him as to its treatment. He deems it of essential importance to keep the mind tranquil, in order to prevent the predisposition; and also to use every means for improving the constitution of the patient. For this latter purpose, our attention is to be primarily directed to the alimentary canal. When the affection has actually commenced, we are, in the first place, to remove the local irritation; which, according to the author's doctrine, is an essential part of the pathology of the disease. If it be 'produced by worms or by dentition, then by speedily expelling the former, or by freely dividing the gums in the latter case, we may reasonably hope to put a stop to the disease. If, however, proper means be not taken before there has been much effusion into the ventricles, the termination will be fatal.' It is stated that the *speedy* removal of the morbid irritation is of great importance, as otherwise 'the brain will acquire the power of acting independent of it.' The irritating cause being removed, the next step is to diminish arterial action, which is principally to be effected by evacuations of blood from the head; either the jugular veins or the temporal arteries may be opened for this purpose, but the author rather prefers the former, because the 'blood can be taken away more freely and in larger quantities from those vessels.' With respect to the employment of mercury, Mr. Bedingfield's opinions are rather peculiar, and savour a little of false refinement. In the first stage of the disease, he thinks that this medicine is 'very injurious;' and that 'it only serves to increase the febrile symptoms:' but, when the effusion has taken place, 'mercurial friction to a great extent may be employed.' In illustration or explanation of this practice, it is said that 'inflammation exists for a considerable time before secretion takes place. Mercury, I apprehend, is prescribed with a view of exciting the absorbents to take up the fluid; to exhibit it therefore before the fluid has been deposited must be useless.' We may perhaps admit the pathology of this paragraph to be correct, but we draw a different practical conclusion from it; viz. that it is so impossible to lay down any decisive symptoms by which we can be enabled to ascertain whether effusion has taken place or not, that we should rather abstain altogether from the exhibition of a remedy, the effects of which are so very ambiguous.

The chapter on *Hemiplegia* commences with the following remarks:

> 'Nothing more forcibly characterises the perversity of some professional men than the practice they pursue in Hemiplegia. Although dissection has repeatedly demonstrated, that the paralysis depends upon the pressure made by blood or serum effused upon the brain; they still persist in administering stimulating medicines internally, and in applying rubefacients, electric sparks, &c. to the parts deprived of muscular power. By the former, they often induce a recurrence of the effusion; by the latter, they injuriously exhaust what little nervous energy may have accumulated in the affected extremities.'

The practice which the author recommends consists in frequent small bleedings from a large orifice, nauseating doses of emetic tartar continued 'for days and even weeks,' blistering the head, and occasional brisk purgatives.

On the subject of *Chorea*, we have a valuable piece of practical information. Of more than forty cases, all except one were cured by the oxyd of zinc, given in sufficient doses to excite nausea. 'Occasional purgatives were employed,' but the author adds, 'I do not recollect any case in which constipation formed a prominent symptom.' As to the cause of the disease, he remarks; 'The disease sometimes arose spontaneously; in by far the greater number of instances, however, it was induced by the children having been frightened. Retention of the menses formed another frequent exciting cause.'

With respect to the chapter on the Functions of the Brain, it may suffice to announce to our readers the hypothesis which is advanced, 'that the office of the brain, is to convert a portion of the blood sent to it into a fluid in which the *living principle* essentially resides; that this fluid is distributed by the nerves to every part of the body; and that it forms the connecting medium between the soul and the body.'

In the second section, *On Diseases of the Fauces, Trachea,* &c., are included *ophthalmia, dentitio, odontalgia, cynanche, pharyngis ulceratio, laryngis ulceratio, laryngis et tracheæ* *ulceratio,* (the last three being illustrated by a case, with the appearances on dissection,) *bronchitis, hæmoptysis, phthisis pulmonalis, pneumonia, empyema,* and *hydrothorax.* We shall select for our examination the chapter on *Hæmoptysis.* The author observes;

> 'The propriety of venesection in this disease has been disputed by some medical writers. I know of no other remedy upon which we can rely; of nothing which so effectually restrains the hemorrhage, lessens the force of the circulation, or prevents the disease from terminating in phthisis.
>
> 'We are often reduced to the alternative of taking blood from the arm, or of allowing it to rush from the lungs. Which mode I would enquire is attended with the greater hazard and inconvenience to the patient?'

After bleeding, 'digitalis may be sometimes advantageously exhibited,' but it is a remedy to which Mr. B. is not partial, for the following reasons:

> 'Upon some persons it acts as a powerful and deadly poison; but upon what peculiarities of constitution this depends, we are at present ignorant.
>
> 'If not given in sufficient quantity to produce its specific effects, it frequently increases the inflammatory diathesis.
>
> 'When the habit is once brought under its influence, it will continue for an indefinite period.
>
> 'Should the effect produced be too powerful, we are without ability to moderate it.
>
> 'The life of a man under the influence of this medicine is in perpetual jeopardy; the incautious or accidental elevation of his body may destroy him.
>
> 'It may sometimes be given to a great extent before it produces any effect; its presence will then be suddenly manifested, and perhaps so powerfully as to extinguish the vital spark.
>
> 'Lastly, I object to digitalis, because I firmly believe that all its beneficial effects may be derived from less powerful and less dangerous ingredients; among these I number ipecacuanha, squills, and tartarized antimony, given in nauseating doses.'

Among other means to be employed, the author conceives that benefit is gained by the local application of sedatives and astringents to the internal fauces.

Respecting the treatment of *Pneumonia,* the author embraces an opinion somewhat different from that which is generally adopted; for he insists on the necessity for an immediate and free evacuation of blood, though he conceives that the blood ought not to be drawn from a large orifice. He founds this direction on the idea that, in this disease, it is necessary 'not only to diminish the force of the heart and arteries, but likewise to lessen considerably the quantity of blood circulating in the system.' When the blood is drawn from a large orifice, in the usual method, the patient faints before a sufficient quantity can be abstracted; and, when he recovers from the state of fainting, the disease is found to be still unsubdued. In weak habits, indeed, where much blood cannot be spared, we may take it from a large orifice. We confess that we are not satisfied with the soundness of this doctrine; for we are disposed to think that inflammatory action is more completely subdued by diminishing the action of the sanguiferous system, than by lessening the actual quantity of blood, with less danger of inducing an excessive degree of subsequent debility. We likewise differ from the author with regard to the necessity for future bleedings, as depending on the manner in which the first blood is abstracted.

Section III. *On Diseases of the Heart*, &c. Here are described the following affections; *carditis*, *hydrops pericardii*, *ventriculorum cordis inflammatio*, *polypi* of the heart, and *aneurism* of the *aorta*. We have also a chapter on the velocity and inequality of the action of the heart; and another on the functions of the pulmonary artery. In more than one part of this section, the author remarks on the increased number of diseases of the heart that have occurred in late years: 'inflammation of the heart,' he says, 'has lately become a very prevalent affection;' and he afterward speaks of 'palpitations of the heart, which have lately become so very prevalent.'

> 'Nearly as many cases of increased action of the heart as of phthisis have been admitted into this Infirmary within the last five years. Scarcely a female applies for the removal of hysterical symptoms, or labouring under amenorrhœa, but, in addition, she is affected with increased and inordinate action of the heart and carotid arteries. Amongst men, likewise, this affection is become very common. The metastasis of rheumatic inflammation from the extremities to the heart often gives rise to it, particularly when venesection has been omitted or but sparingly employed.'

The fact generally coincides with our own observation: but in what way are we to account for it? Is there absolutely an increase in the number of these diseases? or is it not more probable that the complaints of the heart are better understood, and therefore symptoms are attributed to this cause which were formerly assigned to some other source? Is it possible that any thing in the habits of modern times can affect the heart; or that diseases of this organ can be induced by our method of treating other affections? Or are we not influenced by fashion and caprice, as well in medicine as on other subjects; and do we not fancy that these diseases are more common, because several writers of eminence have lately directed our attention to these topics?

Mr. Bedingfield offers some ideas, that seem to us ingenious, on the formation of polypi. He observes that they exhibit two different kinds of structure.

> 'Some will be found to be constituted of layers of coagulable lymph regularly deposited upon each other, and intimately united, or as it were kneaded together by the long continued contractions of the heart; others are but loosely connected; have the red particles of the blood in greater or smaller quantities blended with them; are in short a mass destitute of any resemblance to organized matter.'

The latter seem to be clots of blood of recent formation, probably just before death: but the former exhibit marks of longer duration, and are conceived to be connected with an inflammation of the membrane lining the cavities of the heart. With respect to their origin, the author proposes this conjecture:

> 'It is well known that, if blood received into a vessel be kept in motion with an unpolished piece of wood, the coagulable lymph will collect around it. In a manner precisely similar, I conceive the coagulable lymph to accumulate within the auricles and ventricles. From some accidental cause, as inflammation of one of the carnea columnæ, the membrane is by the coagulable lymph thrown out deprived of its polished surface. The roughness thus produced serves for a nucleus, around which the coagulable lymph contained in the circulating blood gathers, and by degrees forms those extraneous bodies which are usually denominated polypi.'

The idea which is suggested, of 'scrobuticising the system,' in order to prevent the formation of these bodies, appears at least whimsical, and not worthy of the general spirit of the work.

The chapter on the Functions of the Pulmonary Artery contains some speculations, which do not appear to us very profound, on the action of this vessel in converting chyle into blood. Chyle is received into this artery, but, as the author supposes, none of this substance passes from it; therefore, the complete process of sanguification must take place in this part of the circulating system. On the whole, we scarcely know enough of the difference between blood and chyle to enable us to speculate on this subject with any great advantage. The white creamy substance, occasionally found floating on the serum, and which has generally been supposed to be unassimilated chyle, is ascribed by Mr. B. to a different source; and he supposes it to depend 'upon an action of the sanguiferous system, somewhat similar to that by which the buffy coat is produced upon inflamed blood.'

Section IV., *On Diseases of the Stomach*, &c., contains twenty-five chapters, of which we shall do little more than enumerate the titles: viz. *dyspepsia*, *pyrosis*, *hæmatemesis*, ulceration of the stomach, *gastritis*, the effects of ardent spirits on the stomach, the effects of arsenic on the stomach, the structure of the pylorus, *splenitis*, induration of the pancreas, biliary calculi, *icterus*, *hepatitis*, the function of the liver, *peritonitis*, *peritonitis chronica*, *enteritis*, *ascites*, *tabes mesenterica*, *diarrhœa*, *tympanitis*, worms, *aortæ descendentis ulceratio*, *nephritis*, *diabetes*, and the function of the kidneys.

We cannot altogether agree with the author in his remarks on the first of these topics, *Dyspepsia*; though he may have some foundation for the view which he takes of this disease, as being more frequently symptomatic than we commonly suspect.

> 'Dyspepsia is generally described as a distinct disease, and many symptoms characteristic of it, such as heart-burn, flatulent and acid eructations, constipation, &c. are enumerated; these symptoms are, however, more frequently sympathetically excited by disease in some other organ, and ought rather to be considered as symptoms of that disease, than regarded as constituting a disease of the stomach itself.'—'Dyspeptic symptoms will be found for the most part to arise from a derangement in the structure or functions of the brain, liver, pancreas, uterus, and kidneys; in the uterus and pancreas more particularly.'

On the Induration of the Pancreas we have some interesting observations, which we shall quote.

> 'Several cases of extraordinary enlargement and induration of the pancreas have been admitted since my residence at this hospital. They commenced with all the symptoms of dyspepsia. As they advanced, a most distressing sense of weight was felt in the epigastric region; food was with difficulty retained; was sometimes ejected from the stomach; and the bowels were obstinately constipated.
>
> 'When the disease had made further progress, the skin and tunica conjunctiva became deeply and permanently tinged with bile, and a large quantity of the same secretion was seen in the urine. Great irritability in the stomach was next experienced; bile was frequently cast from it, but it rarely happened that any passed into the intestines. A pain similar to, but less violent than that occasioned by gall-stones in the biliary ducts, was likewise felt. Upon pressure being made in the epigastrium, a hard tumor could be distinguished.'

On dissection, the pancreas was found enormously enlarged and extremely indurated. We are told that, in some instances, it had acquired six times its natural bulk; and, by its pressure alone on the duodenum and the biliary ducts, it prevented the passage of the food and the bile. Many of the symptoms usually ascribed to the presence of gall-stones were, by examination after death, found to have originated from the induration of the pancreas.

The author states that 'an immense number of ascitic patients' have been treated in the Bristol Infirmary; and that the most successful plan was found to be mercurial friction, combined with a drastic purgative; viz. *elaterium*, which was given in doses of from two to five grains once or twice in a week. In violent diarrhœa, the following practice is mentioned as almost certainly successful: 'For one, two, or three nights in succession, as circumstances may indicate, from three to five grains of calomel, with one grain of opium, should be given. On the following morning, it may sometimes be proper to direct half an ounce of castor oil.'

The fifth and sixth sections are much shorter than that which precedes; the former consisting of six chapters, and the latter of only two. They treat, in the fifth section, on affections of the bladder, of the rectum, of the uterus, (under which is included *hysteria*,) *amenorrhœa*, *leucorrhœa*, *menorrhagia*, and ulceration of the uterus. The subjects of the sixth section are diseased spine and fracture of the spine. Under the former of these topics, we observe the only instance of want of candour which we have noticed in the course of the work.

Section VII. relates chiefly to febrile diseases; and the author is so bold as to begin by a 'Theory of Fever.' He informs us that, in fevers of all descriptions, there is a determination of blood to some organ; and therefore, he says, 'the uniformity of the occurrence has taught me to think, with some other men, that fever is an effort of the *vis medicatrix naturæ*, to free the oppressed organ from the superabundant blood.' Such is the theory, and the ground on which it is built! In pursuance, we suppose, of this theory, and (as we think) in contradiction to experience, we have the following paragraph: 'All fevers are inflammatory; the division of them into inflammatory and typhoid is prejudicial; it deters many from employing the proper remedies. A better, more useful, and a more natural division of them, is into contagious and non-contagious inflammatory affections.' The brain is supposed to be the seat of genuine typhus; although, except in the non-contagious nature of the disease, a similar affection is produced by the 'inflammation of the lungs, liver, and internal coats of the stomach.' — The treatment of typhus is thus recapitulated: 'It will be seen that I have divided the treatment of typhus fever into three stages. In the first stage, we are to administer emetics, and employ venesection. In the second stage, we are to moderate the re-action of the system, by the admission of cool air, sponging the body, &c.; and by emptying the bowels, by administering calomel, in combination with antimonial powder. In the third and last stage, we shall more frequently benefit than injure the patient by giving him wine, broths, &c.' — Besides typhus, the other diseases treated in this section are, *febres intermittentes, scarlatina, rubeola, pertussis, variola, variola vaccina, syphilis,* and *erysipelas.* — The eighth section, intitled *General Affections,* relates to diseases of the skin, *anasarca, sphacelus, scrophula,* and *rheumatismus.*

We have entered minutely into the account of this work, in order to enable our readers to appreciate its merits, which we really conceive to be not trivial. It contains much useful practical matter, perspicuously stated; and, for the most part, unencumbered by those fanciful and imperfect speculations, which so frequently appear in the writings of men who profess to discard theory. Mr. Bedingfield sometimes speaks with a degree of confidence which is scarcely consistent with the uncertain nature of all medical practice: but we allow that this tone may, in some measure, be justified by his extensive experience. What improvement might we not expect to be made in the healing art, were all persons similarly situated to make the same use of their advantages!

We must not omit to remark that this volume gives us a very favourable opinion of the arrangement and general conduct of the Bristol Infirmary; a circumstance not less adapted to promote the welfare of the individuals placed there, than to improve the condition of medical science.

ART. VI. *Dr.* Clarke's *Travels in different Parts of Europe, Vols. III. and IV.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 47.]

THE reader of this work is occasionally presented with information of considerable importance on subjects out of the way of ordinary observers; particularly with regard to one which, prolonged as our report already is, we cannot forbear to bring before our readers: viz. *the Mines of*

Transylvania and Hungary. Dr. C. is professionally a mineralogist; and the opportunity of inspecting the valuable mines of the country through which he passed was too desirable to be overlooked. He made a point, therefore, of departing from his route on two occasions for this purpose; and the reader will find himself amply recompensed for the deviation by the importance of the works that fell under the author's view. The first object of description is the mine of Nagyag in Transylvania:

> 'As Transylvania is the only country in the whole world where tellurium has yet been discovered, our curiosity was greatly excited to view the Nagyag mine. At last the prospect of it opened, with great boldness of scenery, quite among the summits of this mountainous region, and in a manner highly picturesque and striking. — The whole village has been undermined: the works are not only carried on upon a grand and extensive scale, but they are conducted with a degree of neatness for which the Germans have long been famous in mining. — Some specimens of the tellurium are so exceedingly rich in gold, that, in the sale of them for the crown, it is necessary to weigh them, and to estimate the price according to the proportion of the gold they contain. This kind of ore is always kept locked in particular warehouses; and it is portioned into different lots, which are placed in chests. The common ore lies exposed in heaps, at which labourers are seen busied with hammers, selecting and breaking it for the further operation of stamping.' — 'At the time of our arrival, it had been constantly worked during sixty years; and it was fully as productive as at any period of its prosperity. Whether it were owing to the high wages given to the miners, or to the salubrious state of the atmosphere at so great an elevation, we could not learn; but we remarked that we had never seen such robust miners as those of Nagyag.'

The next account of this kind relates to the mines of Schemnitz and Cremnitz, situated in the northern part of Hungary, at the distance of several hundred miles from Nagyag. Every accommodation was afforded to the travellers in their researches; and at Schemnitz they had the honour of accompanying two brothers of the Emperor of Austria, who had come on purpose to pay a visit to these interesting appendages of the crown.

Mines of Cremnitz. — 'In every thing we witnessed, both here and in Transylvania, the art of mining is conducted upon so magnificent a scale, and at the same time with such discreet economy, that it must be confessed the Germans have left other nations far behind them in managing these important resources of national wealth. This is the first impression, made by viewing their superior skill and industry in the art of mining; the apparent ease, neatness, and advantage, with which the works are carried on; the spacious entrances to their mines; their dry, airy, and cleanly levels; and the great encouragement given to the study of mineralogy, and to all mining speculations. But upon a strict inquiry made into the statistics of the mines of Cremnitz, a second impression followed: it then seemed to us as if their golden age was passed; owing to the conviction we had of the poverty of the German government, and of its inability to advance the sums necessary for carrying on the works.' — 'The annual produce of gold and silver at Cremnitz amounts to 800,000 marks of silver, and 3000 of gold.' —

'The situation of Cremnitz is so elevated, that the church of St. John, near the town, is believed to stand upon the highest point of all Hungary. Notwithstanding the fine season of the year when we visited this place, we were glad to have our rooms heated with stoves. — Its deepest mine has been worked to the depth of three hundred fathoms.' —

Schemnitz. — 'The number of miners at Schemnitz, employed by the crown, amounts to 8000: at Cremnitz there are only 1500. Formerly they all carried arms; but this custom no longer exists. Their payment is regulated by the ore which they find. When this is very rich, they are paid according to the quantity and quality of the ore raised; when it proves poor, they receive wages. — The whole expence to government of working these mines is estimated at 50,000 florins per month; and the profit, clear of all expence for the same space of time, amounts to 12,000 florins (1500l. sterling.)' — 'All the Imperial mines at Schemnitz have a connection with each other; offering, in their whole extent, a subterraneous passage, which reaches to the astonishing length of three thousand fathoms, nearly three miles and a half. The sight of the interior of the Paquer-stohln mine convinced us that there are no other mines in the world like those of Hungary. How wretched in comparison appear the mines of Cornwall and Wales! where it is sometimes necessary to creep upon the hands and knees, wet through, over all sorts of rubbish, in order to pass along a level from one shaft to another. Even the antient mines of Sweden are inferior in comparison with these of Schemnitz. The mode of descent into our English mines is always attended with difficulty, and almost always with danger: but the inside of an Hungarian mine may be compared to the interior arrangement of one of our best frigates, where space has been so husbanded, and cleanliness so strictly maintained, that nothing is seen out of its place, and there is room enough for every operation.' —

Mode of washing out gold and silver particles. — 'This is done by a person holding in his hands a wooden vessel, containing the mud of the mine attenuated with water, which is shaken by repeated concussions of the vessel against his body. During this operation, and frequently changing the water, the gold is gradually driven towards the side of the machine, in the form of a yellow shining mud; and the silver is seen following it, in a state of extreme division, not unlike steel filings.'

One of the most gratifying circumstances, to the traveller who exposes himself to the inconvenience and hazard of a journey through European Turkey, consists in finding copious remains of the classical languages, not only in the mouths of the learned but in the current dialect of the ordinary population. We have already mentioned, in our report of the travels of Mr. Hobhouse, (M. R. Vol. lxxiv. p. 352.) the marked approximation of the Romaic to the antient Greek; and we have now to notice a similar coincidence between the Latin and the living languages of Walachia and Hungary.

Language of Walachia. — 'Nothing appeared to us more remarkable than the language. It is not enough to say of it, that it is nearly allied to the Latin; it is in many respects purely so: the difference between our way of speaking Latin, and theirs, consisting only in the pronunciation. All the principal names of things that a traveller requires, particularly of provisions, are Latin-words.* To what can this be attributed but to those colonies which the Romans sent into this country? For although the colony sent by Trajan was afterwards withdrawn, in great measure, by Aurelian, to the southern side of the Danube; yet the introduction of thirty thousand persons into a district which did not exceed eighty leagues from east to west, and forty from north to south, and their residence for so considerable a period upon a spot where there were hardly any other inhabitants at the time, must account for the existence of their language as the predominating tongue. And what renders this the more probable is, that the present native inhabitants call themselves (Ῥώμυν) Romans; pronouncing the word, like the Greeks, with the Omega.' —

Language of Hungary. — 'In more than one instance we observed the Latin, as a general language, in use among the inhabitants. We heard it spoken in the post-houses, by Hungarian gentlemen, who were travelling; and probably it has continued in this country as it was left by the Romans when they were possessors of the Dacian mines. Indeed there is no part of Hungary where Latin is not understood, even by the lower orders. Their pronunciation of Latin ought, therefore, to be considered as likely to resemble the Roman: and that it really does resemble the Roman pronunciation, may be proved by a curious specimen of Hellenistic Latin preserved by Constantine Porphyrogenetes, in his Ceremonial of the Byzantine Court.'

Wines of Hungary. — The admirers of Tokay would never forgive us if we silently passed over their favourite topic, in

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'* According to Thunmann, as cited by Adelung, half the Walachian language consists of Latin words; the other half is made up of words derived from the Greek, Gothic, or Turkish, and Sclavonian languages.'

our account of the labours of a traveller who had so good an opportunity of judging of the various products of the Hungarian soil. Unluckily, however, the subject proves much less *piquant* in his hands than they may be apt to imagine; and Dr. C. treats this precious beverage with an unusual degree of *sang-froid*.

'The inhabitants have every inducement to drink wine, because they have no beer; and the water is detestable, from one end of the country to the other. It is rare, indeed, to meet with a wholesome spring; so generally impregnated are all the fountains with acids, saline substances, or other mineral ingredients: and with regard to the generality of its wines, these are little suited to the palates of more northern nations. They would have been rather adapted to what the taste was in our country, when Sack and Malmsey were the delight of our convivial tables, than to the vitiated palates of Englishmen, habituated as they now are to a factitious astringent beverage, received, by common consent and courtesy, under the name of Port. But, after all that can be said of the Hungarian wine, the opinions of different individuals are so opposite, in this respect, that one traveller will condemn what another has extolled. Perhaps, therefore, the best judgment may be afforded by comparison. The finest wine of Tokay is very like that of Cyprus: it has the same sweetness; and it is also characterized by that slight effervescence, from which the Commandaria of Cyprus is never exempted. To compare it with other preparations brewed by English housewives; it is somewhat like Mead, or very luscious old Raisin wine; and therefore we ventured to pronounce it bad. The wine of Buda, we thought, was better; because it has more of a vinous flavour. But nothing is more probable, than that the very reasons we have now urged in affirming the bad quality of genuine Tokay, may be considered by others as proofs of its excellence. An Hungarian, tagging his Latin aphorisms to the end of all his observations, would say of our remarks, "De gustibus nil disputandum."'

Having brought Dr. C. nearly to the end of his journey, and given such ample specimens of his composition in the way of extract, it is now time to draw our observations to a point, by summing up the principal merits and defects of his work; and here we shall have to exhibit some large *items* on the side of the latter: for we cannot pay this sprightly traveller the compliment of having profited by the hints, however significant, that we took the liberty of offering to him on former occasions.

The deficient *arrangement* of these volumes is the more to be regretted, because the subjects discussed in them are frequently of an unconnected and uninviting nature. To impart attraction to antient inscriptions, or to carry the reader's attention through a series of historical conjectures, all the aid of careful and finished composition was required. The personal narrative of the travellers afforded but little interest, as the portion of time passed on Grecian ground did not exceed three months; and the secluded nature of the country which they traversed, after their departure from Athens, prevented them from meeting with any striking characters, or giving their journal the benefit of any remarkable anecdotes. Dr. C., however, appears to have been very inadequately impressed with these considerations, and to have been unconscious of the advantage of arrangement even where it was most requisite. His account of the Vale of Tempe is broken in two by the unnecessary introduction of a description of Ampelakia; while the conclusive explanation of Professor Palmer and Mr. Walpole, which should have formed a finish to the long disquisition, is brought forwards in the beginning, before the reader has been fully apprized of the question, and while the chart necessary to comprehend it is placed nearly twenty pages behind. In short, nothing can be more indistinct or confused than Dr. C.'s observations in a description of any extent; no pains having been taken to communicate them in their natural connection, or to save the reader the trouble of arranging and digesting for himself. Let any one attempt to form a clear idea of a place described at some length, such as Delphi, from the materials in this volume, and he will soon become sensible of the justness of our animadversions. Indeed, even the author seems to have been bewildered by this disorder; for he has by no means succeeded in providing, by his marginal titles, a clear or intelligible index to his text.

In the important point of *style*, also, we observe great room for animadversion. Dr. C. still expresses his thoughts in language almost as desultory as in his first published volume: writing sometimes straight on for several pages, without dividing his matter into paragraphs; and labouring backwards and forwards, as if he were at a loss to find adequate expressions for the ideas that press on his imagination. If this judgment be deemed too severe, we intreat the reader to turn to almost any topic in the book, however simple; such as (pp. 94, 95.) the discovery of the old road across Mount Helicon; the description (p. 163.) of the relics of Orchomenus; the account (p. 132.) of the Adytum in the cave of Trophonius; or the notice (pp. 440. 442.) of the devastated condition of the town of Fairi in Thrace, the abode of the antient Cicones. In all these, he will remark a strange want of clearness, mixed with successive examples of repetition and redundancy, the never failing accompaniments of this crude kind of composition. In the passage last mentioned, Ulysses is twice brought forwards as the ravager of the Ciconian capital; and the desolation caused by the banditti of the present day is detailed in page after page, while the whole might have been much more distinctly expressed in half the space.

Another grievous drawback on the interest of Dr. C.'s narrative is the endless series of quotations; many of which, if not omitted, might have been consigned to the bottom of the page, so as to avoid the interruption of our attention to the text. We are far from objecting to a traveller's consultation of antient authors for illustrations of his views, or for a sanction to his conclusions: but Dr. C. has, in this as in other matters, sadly neglected the Aristotelian precept of the happy medium; witness his elaborate citations (p. 382.) concerning the tomb of Euripides, or (pp. 454. 459.) about the river Hebrus and the Caduceus of Mercury. Even on the subject of medals, interesting as several of his observations are, we find an egregious violation of the rules of brevity in his account (pp. 561, 562, 563.) of the antient city of Marcianopolis in Dacia, and of a redoubted warrior, Rhescuporis king of Thrace.

We have next a still more important charge against this indefatigable traveller; viz. of *inaccuracy of statement*; and we believe that it would be no difficult matter to swell it to a considerable size: but we shall confine ourselves to a few animadversions on his easy credence of reports relative to population. What would an accurate geographer say to that account which represents the almost unknown town of Rhodosto in Thrace as containing (p. 470.) 10,000 houses; Shumla in Bulgaria (p. 557.) as having 16 or 18,000; and (p. 574.) Rutschuk on the Danube as consisting of not fewer than 20,000? Again, when speaking of Zeitun in Thessaly, Dr. Clarke says, '*there* are *here* from 800 to 1000 houses and above 1000 shops,' without deigning to instruct his readers as to the means of finding business for this closely planted section of the *nation boutiquière*. These exaggerations are rendered more remarkable by their contrast with other statements. Buda and Pest are well known cities; yet their population is put down collectively at only 38,000: while the town of Ketchemet, situated almost in *Terra Incognita*, is complimented with so many as 60,000. Presburg, the capital of Hungary, is reckoned at 20,000 only, without any expression of surprise at the comparative inferiority.

Dr. C. is accustomed to give a very decisive opinion on the merit of writers who have treated on the subjects of his travels; and we apprehend that he leans, on more occasions than one, (pp. 293. 405.) to the side of ardent encomium. We have no hesitation in joining with the censure passed (p. 78.) on the inaccuracy of the Abbé Barthélémy: but what are we to think of the commendation bestowed in a note (p. 465.) on Paul Rycaut, when the text of that and the following page points to a striking deviation from the character of accuracy ascribed to him? — Another fault, allied to the foregoing, is the habit of amplifying any topic that takes hold for the moment of the fancy of the writer. Though a veteran in travelling, and we might now almost say in literary composition, Dr. C. cannot prevent himself from falling into a rapturous effusion at every remarkable spot which he visits. At one time, Delphi is declared (p. 179.) to be 'the most extraordinary place of all Greece;' and shortly afterward (p. 238.) Thermopylæ is pronounced 'the most interesting part of all our travels.' On arriving (p. 337.) near the site of the antient Pella, Dr. C. sets his imagination at work to calculate the effect of mountain-scenery on the mind of Alexander, and actually ascribes the formation of his towering ambition to the contemplation of 'the awful form of Olympus, believed to be the throne of heaven itself.'

On the other hand, however, we must state that the present volume is marked by few if any of those angry invectives which characterized the volume on Russia; and that the reader has seldom to guard himself against any general or predominant prejudices in the mind of his author. Another recommendation, of no small moment, is Dr. C.'s attention in recording old inscriptions as land-marks for studying the topography of antient Greece. 'I may be asked,' he says, (preface, p. xi.) 'why an inscription at Marathon containing only the letters KAIN was thought worthy of a place in this work? to which the answer is that it served to prove that the ruins where these letters appeared were truly Grecian.'

Dr. C. is accustomed also to be very liberal of embellishments in his different publications; and his last volume contains above fifty copper-plates, charts, or vignettes. Some of these, particularly the charts, are very useful, while others might have been omitted, and the expence appropriated to a general map of Greece on an extensive scale, or to separate maps of the different provinces, inserted in the succession in which they were traversed. At the end of the volume are two very valuable charts by Kauffer, an engineer well known at Constantinople; one a plan of that city and its environs; the other a sketch of the adjacent district and waters, particularly the sea of Marmora and the Dardanelles. These bear every appearance of accuracy; and Dr. C. has taken care to have them engraved in a style worthy of their intrinsic merit.

The volume concludes with a list of the different plants collected in the journey; a diary of the temperature of the atmosphere, with a corresponding statement of the weather in England; and a journal of the author's route, containing the names of the places and their distance from each other.

ART. VII. *An Elementary Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus.* By S. F. Lacroix. Translated from the French, with an Appendix and Notes. 8vo. pp. 720. 18s. Boards. Law and Whittaker.

THE work, of which we have here a translation, was first published at Paris in 1802, and has we believe had a very considerable circulation in this country, with the other elementary treatises of the same author. His great performance on the Differential and Integral Calculus, of which the present may be considered as an abridgment, possesses also an established reputation, and is admired by many of the first English analysts. In fact, no name is better calculated to inspire confidence in a performance of this kind than that of Lacroix, and we are glad to find that the translation has been undertaken by gentlemen who are also well known for their analytical skill and dexterity.

'The first part of this Treatise, which is devoted to the exposition of the principles of the Differential Calculus, was translated by Mr. Babbage. The translation of the second part, which treats of the Integral Calculus, was executed by Mr. G. Peacock, of Trinity College, and by Mr. Herschel, of St. John's College, in nearly equal proportions. The Appendix of Lacroix, on the Calculus of Differences and Series, has been replaced by an original treatise, by Mr. Herschel, in which many important subjects are included, which had been either entirely omitted or very imperfectly considered in the other.

'The first twelve of the Notes were written by Mr. Peacock, and were principally designed to enable the student to make use of the principle of Lagrange, adopting those statements and examples of our author, which do not involve the theory of limits. The others were written by Mr. Herschel.'

It appears from this advertisement that Mr. Babbage, Mr. Peacock, and Mr. Herschel have contributed their respective proportions towards the present performance; and, as we have observed above, perhaps few mathematicians are better calculated for the due performance of such an undertaking. We do not profess to agree with them in all their devotedness for French mathematics: but on this point we shall speak hereafter; our first object is to examine the general merits of the translation.

In a work in which the skill and judgment of the author are generally admitted, nothing farther is demanded of the translator than to render complete the sense of the original: but, in order to effect this object, in a mathematical treatise, little less knowlege of the subject is requisite in the translator than is necessary in the author. It is not the man who best understands the language, but he who has the most intimate acquaintance with the science, that will give the most faithful translation; and in the latter respect no one will question the qualifications of the gentlemen above mentioned. We may add that we have carefully compared the translation with the original; and if in the former we have not observed the words of the latter precisely followed, we have always found the sense entire; which is by far the most important object.

The Appendix, as we have seen, has been cancelled, and replaced by another, written by Mr. Herschel, and containing the following articles; viz. on differences and series; on the direct method of differences, when applied to functions of two or more variables; on the inverse method of finite differences; the determination of a function, of which the difference is explicitly given in terms of the independent variable; on the integration of equations of differences; and the general theory of equations of the first degree; on equations of mixed differences; the application of the calculus of differences to the summation of series; on recurring series; on the connection between the differential calculus and that of differences; on the determination of functions from given conditions; on interpolations; on the numbers of Bernoulli; and the application of the integral calculus to the theory of series. — With respect to this Appendix, we shall only observe that many of the articles contained in it were omitted in the original; that others are more fully treated; and generally, that in its present form it adds considerably to the interest of the translation.

The notes relate to a variety of subjects: but they may be said usually to have reference to the establishment of first principles, either by developing more completely the ideas of the author, or by placing his deductions in different points of view. The first note enters at some length into the nature of limits, and the method of deducing, from considerations founded on them, certain results. The writer observes that the consideration of limits was introduced by the antient geometers, in order to discover such properties of incommensurable quantities, and of circles and other curves, as were beyond the reach of direct investigation; of which description are all the properties of circles that are not dependent on their intersection with straight lines. In all these inquiries, they made use of the method of limits, or *Exhaustions*: but the rigorous verification of the conditions of a limit, which this method requires, necessarily incumbers every demonstration in which it is employed.

'Even the clearness of its evidence, and its visible dependence on first principles, form but a slight recommendation to it, when applied to propositions in the higher departments of mathematical science, where the mind is unable to comprehend at one view all the steps of the process, by which the conclusion is derived; the great excellence of every method, indeed, must be the union of brevity, with strictness of demonstration: and this was the object which was attempted to be attained by various modern geometers, and in which they finally succeeded.

'The first attempt of this kind was made by Cavalerius, in his Geometria Indivisibilium, in which he considers lines, planes, and solid bodies, as composed of an infinite number of indivisible or infinitely small elements: thus, lines are supposed to be made up of an infinite number of points, planes of an infinite number of lines, and solid bodies of an infinite number of planes: suppositions which are all equally contrary to the first principles of geometry.'

The author next undertakes to illustrate the method of Cavalerius by an example, and afterward remarks that,

'The principles of this method were insensibly adopted by the greatest part of the geometers of that period, who considered the want of rigour in the demonstrations founded upon them as fully compensated by their superior facility: they verified their conclusions, by shewing that they were identical with those of the ancient geometers, when treating of the same propositions; an agreement which was always appealed to, as the test of the truth of new principles, or new methods of investigation; but one principal advantage, resulting from the introduction of this method, consisted in the increased facilities which it gave to the applications of Algebra to the theory of curves, and particularly, by its forming, in the hands of Leibnitz, the basis of his reasoning in the discovery and demonstration of the principles of the Differential and Integral Calculus.

'Newton finally succeeded in embodying, in his method of prime and ultimate ratios, the accurate reasoning of the method of Exhaustions, without its prolixity. He considers quantities and their ratios as *ultimately equal*, which constantly approximate to each other, and in any finite time (for his principal object was the application of this method to mechanical philosophy), approach nearer to equality, than any difference that can be assigned. He then proceeds to make use of this principle, in the demonstration of a series of propositions or lemmas, which are applicable generally to all curves of continuous curvature, and to the theory of variable motions, and which likewise serve as first principles in all succeeding investigations.'

Note 2. is employed in illustrating Lagrange's method of establishing the principles of the Differential Calculus, entirely independent of infinitesimals or limits; and in continuation we have an exposition of the Infinitesimals of Leibnitz, and the Fluxions of Newton: in which latter we are sorry to observe a tendency to undervalue the Fluxional Analysis, if not the merits of the author himself. On this head, we cannot refrain from making a few remarks. We have had frequent occasions for observing, and regretting, the little attention that has been paid in late years by English mathematicians to the modern analysis; no actual improvements having, to the best of our knowlege, been made by any of our countrymen in this science, since the times of Simpson and Landen: — at least, if any such have appeared, they have been too unimportant to claim a place in the history of analysis. It will be observed that we speak not here of the application of this calculus to mechanical or astronomical subjects, but of the calculus itself. Far different has been the case with our continental neighbours: the Differential Calculus of Leibnitz has received, in the hands of D'Alembert, Euler, Lagrange, &c. the most unwearied attention; and the improvements that have thus been introduced, into what may be termed its metaphysics, leave no longer the same science, nothing remaining of the original but its name and notation. On the contrary, little has been done since the time of Maclaurin to correct those imperfections which are so commonly ascribed to the doctrine of fluxions, as it was established by its illustrious inventor; and we ought not, therefore, in estimating the merits of the two methods, to compare fluxions, as they were first delivered, with the differential calculus as it exists at the present day; the one being left with nearly "all its imperfections on its head," while the other is almost entirely a different science, compared with its state in the time of Leibnitz.

In matters of science, we ought undoubtedly to divest ourselves of every species of nationality; and to examine every subject, not with reference to the country in which it was produced, but on the ground of its actual merits and the evidence of the principles on which it is founded. On this broad basis we should wish to see all scientific questions discussed: but it is proper, at the same time, that this spirit should be guided by prudence; and that we should not suffer our liberality to lead us into a blind admiration of others, to the total disregard of our own merits. Yet something like this must surely have happened, before a member of one of our Universities could be brought to declare that, 'in the brevity of its demonstrations, and in the facility of its applications, the fluxional calculus is inferior to all other methods.' (P. 618.)

This part of the note in question we unequivocally deny; for, whatever may be the other defects of the doctrine of fluxions, it certainly yields to no method in those very qualities in which it is here stated to be inferior. That the mixture of the mechanical and geometrical considerations, on which it is founded, is in some degree defective, we will not dispute; and that the fluxional notation has not in it that symmetry which belongs to the other, we will also concede: but is the fluxional notation an essential part of the doctrine? Might we not write fx for $\dot{x}$, f^2x for $\ddot{x}$, and so on, without changing in any respect the nature of the principles? Yet the author asserts that the most important distinction between this system and the differential calculus consists in a different notation: that is to say, the greatest defect in this method might be corrected by a change in the first two pages of a treatise on fluxions, by directing the reader to denote a quantity in one manner instead of another. If, then, this be the greatest defect, and this defect may be so easily corrected, how can the fluxional analysis, with justice to its illustrious inventor, be placed so low in the present writer's scale of estimation? To shew how far the assertion is just, which attributes so much facility to other methods, we make the following abstract from the notes, page 595.:

'We will give a single instance of the application of this theorem: in the developement of sin x in terms of x and its powers, we have direct means of shewing, that it must be of the following form:

$$\sin x = a_0 x - \frac{a_0^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} x^3 + \frac{a_0^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \cdot x^5 - \&c.$$

'it yet remains to determine the constant quantity a_0.

'We have already seen, $x < \tan x$, and $> \sin x$: but

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = \frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{(1 - \sin^2 x)}};$$

and consequently

$$\frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{(1 - \sin^2 x)}} > x;$$

we hence get

$$\sin x > x \sqrt{(1 - \sin^2 x)},$$
$$\sin^2 x > x^2 \ (1 - \sin^2 x).$$

By transposition, we have

$$\sin^2 x \ (1 + x^2) > x^2;$$

therefore

$$\sin^2 x > \frac{x^2}{1 + x^2},$$

and

$$\sin x > \frac{x}{\sqrt{(1 + x^2)}}:$$

We consequently have

$$\sin x < x$$
$$\sin x = a_0 x - \frac{a_0^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} x^3 + \frac{a_0^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \cdot x^5 - \&c.$$
$$\sin x > \frac{x}{\sqrt{(1 - x^2)}} > x \left(1 - \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4} \cdot x^4 - \&c.\right)$$

and therefore

$$\frac{\sin x}{x} < 1$$
$$\frac{\sin x}{x} = a_0 - \frac{a_0^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \cdot x^2 + \frac{a_0^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} \cdot x^4 - \&c.$$
$$\frac{\sin x}{x} > 1 - \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \frac{1 \cdot 3}{2 \cdot 4} \cdot x^4 - \&c.$$

We thus obtain three expressions, which answer the conditions expressed in the enunciation of the preceding theorem; and since the first terms of the greatest and least are identical, and equal to unity, we may conclude that a_0, the first term of the second, is equal to unity also.

'The series for $\sin x$ will thus become

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{x^5}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5} - \&c.'$$

In this investigation, or developement, the reader will observe that, in order that it should stand on its own basis, the legality of the assumed series should be shewn; as also that $x <$ tan. x and $>$ sin. x; and finally, the theorem, to which the expression is ultimately made applicable, must be previously demonstrated. Let the reader supply these steps; and then, having investigated the same on the fluxional principles, let him inform us whether, in the facilities of its applications, it is inferior to every other method.

The theorem above mentioned is as follows:

‘ *Let the three expressions*

$$a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a^3 x^3 + \&c. \qquad (1)$$

$$a'_0 + a'_1 x + a'_2 x^2 + a'_3 x^3 + \&c. \qquad (2)$$

$$a''_0 + a''_1 x^2 + a''_2 x^2 + a''_3 x^3 + \&c. \qquad (3)$$

be so related to each other, that the values of the second may be always less than those of the first, and greater than those of the third: if $\mathrm{a}_0 = \mathrm{a}_0''$, *then also must* $\mathrm{a}_0' = \mathrm{a}_0$.’

We have copied this passage for the purpose of making a few observations as to the correctness of the demonstration. The author has demonstrated that, in any series of the kind above stated, such a value of x may be found, (taking for example series No. 1.) as will make the whole differ from the first term, by a quantity less than any given quantity d; and consequently, in any similar series, (as for instance the second,) such a value of x may be found as will make that also differ from its first term by a quantity less than d': but we cannot perceive that it is any where shewn that, in two different series, the *same* value of x will fulfil both these conditions; and the truth of the theorem rests entirely on this point. We do not assert that this *could not* be demonstrated: all that we maintain is that it *ought to have been* demonstrated, and that the demonstration is in consequence defective.

In conclusion, we must object to the use of the Italic d instead of the Roman d, for denoting a differential. We have always wished that some distinct symbol had been from the first employed for this purpose, rather than any letter whatever: but, if a letter is to be used, we think that no doubt can for a moment be entertained, of the Roman d being preferable to the other; on account of its being less liable to be mistaken for an absolute quantity. At all events, this appears to have been the opinion of the most esteemed writers on analysis; and we therefore cannot but consider the innovation as an attempt to introduce novelty at the expence of propriety. — The number of errata in the volume (between two and three hundred) we also consider as excessively large; and, though it may accord with the fashion of French authors, it certainly indicates a culpable negligence in the revisal of the proof-sheets.

ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1818. Part I.

[*Article concluded from p.* 65.]

PHYSIOLOGY, CHEMISTRY, AND MEDICINE.

ADDITIONAL Facts respecting the Fossil Remains of an Animal, on the Subject of which two Papers have been printed in the Philosophical Transactions, shewing that the Bones of the Sternum resemble those of the Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. V.P.R.S. — The object of this paper is sufficiently expressed in its title; and we have little to add, but that the description which is given of the parts, accompanied by the illustrative engraving, appears sufficiently to prove the alleged similarity between the bones found at Lyme and those of the singular inhabitant of New Holland. It tends to generalize the fact, of which we have now so many illustrations, that the fossil-remains of bones belong to animals that no longer inhabit the countries in which these remains are deposited. Like most other analogous cases, however, notwithstanding the marked resemblance between these fossil-bones and those of the *Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus*, it is not complete, but indicates what may be regarded as a specific difference, or at least a different variety of animal, although belonging to the same family.

A few Facts relative to the colouring Matters of some Vegetables. By James Smithson, Esq. F.R.S. — This paper consists of a series of facts which have little connection with each other, and of which it would not be easy to give any abstract or analysis. The substances on which Mr. Smithson operated were turnsole, violet, sugar-loaf paper, the black mulberry, the corn poppy, sap-green, and some animal greens. We are disposed to receive with favour all matters of fact, even when we are unable to discover any general principle to which they lead, or any use which can be derived from them: but we must regret that the author has not attempted to reduce his experiments into some kind of order, or point out the deductions that may be made from them.

On the Office of the Heart-Wood of Trees. By T. A. Knight, Esq. F.R.S. — Many writers on vegetable physiology had regarded the heart-wood of trees as scarcely exercising any functions connected with the life of the vegetable, but as serving merely to give it mechanical strength and support. Mr. Knight, however, supposes that, besides this use, it likewise serves, in common with the alburnum and bark, as a reservoir during the winter for the sap or other juices which are employed in the spring on germination; and he conceives that its texture does not allow of any fluid to ascend vertically through it, but that it enters into it by lateral passages. In order to subject this opinion to the test of experiment, portions of the heart-wood of various trees were examined, with respect to the quantity of fluid which they contained at different periods of the year, and also compared with the alburnum from the same tree. Mr. Knight's general conclusion is that the fluid, from which the matter is obtained that is annually employed in converting the alburnum into heart-wood, is derived from the bark; that, during the autumn, it passes through the convergent cellular processes; and that it returns in part through the same passages when a new layer of bark is formed in the spring.

The Croonian Lecture. On the Changes the Blood undergoes in the Act of Coagulation. By Sir Ev. Home, Bart. V.P.R.S. —*Some Additions to the Croonian Lecture, on the Changes the Blood undergoes in the Act of Coagulation.* By the Same.— These two papers principally consist of the account of a series of microscopical observations that have been made by Mr. Bauer on the globules of the blood, from which Sir Ev. Home has deduced some very singular physiological speculations. According to these observations, the globules of the blood owe their colour to an enveloping matter, which seems to possess the property of preserving them separate from each other; for when it is removed they coalesce, and appear disposed to form themselves into lines. When the ultimate fibre of the muscle was obtained by long and careful maceration, it exhibited in the microscope the same appearance of a series of rounded bodies attached together, similar to the united globules of the blood. By very careful preparation, the brain was found to consist of a tissue of the same kind of fibres, formed from the concretion of globules; and it is stated that these globules, as well as those in pus, are of the same size with the globules of the blood, when deprived of their colouring matter.

Sir Everard then enters on the very curious and important inquiry respecting the intimate nature of the process by which extravasated blood becomes vascular, or acquires its first rudiments of organization. Guided by the analogy of some appearances that had been observed by Mr. Bauer in his microscopical examination of the process of germination in vegetables, Sir Everard supposes that it depends on the extrication of extremely minute bubbles of gas, previously contained in the blood; which seems to form, as it were, longitudinal passages or tubes, anastomosing with each other in all directions. These compose the rudiments of vessels, through which the globules afterward pass, and which thus compose the nidus for the future organization of the part. — In the additional paper, the author attempts to repel some objections that had been brought against the hypothesis advanced in the former part, especially respecting the mode in which the gas is supposed to be extricated. By Mr. Bauer's assistance, a set of observations were made on the coagulation of blood, under different circumstances; which, as Sir Everard thinks, 'prove, not only that the same change takes place when blood is extravasated in living animal bodies, but that these channels have a communication opened between them and the neighbouring arteries, and that the fluid-blood circulates through the channels in the coagulum.' He obtained the aid of Captain Kater to ascertain the diameter of the globules of the blood; which, from an average of two experiments, was found to be $\frac{1}{5000}$ of an inch.

To remove the objections that had been urged against the idea of the net-work observed in the preceding experiments being formed by the extrication of small globules of carbonic acid gas, Sir E. Home found that the net-work was not produced when the blood had been placed under the receiver of the air-pump, and had thus had the air extricated. He next attempted to render the existence of these tubes more evident to the senses by actually injecting them: this was done by covering the surface of a piece of coagulum with an injection, which was then placed in an air-pump; and, by forming a vacuum, the carbonic acid issued from the tubes, and suffered the injection to enter into them. This experiment is said to have succeeded completely.

Sir Everard next proceeds to inquire whether 'coagula of blood deposited in the abdomen underwent the same change.' The experiment was actually made on the mesenteric artery of a rabbit; and, by afterward injecting the coagulum that was formed, the author inferred that its appearance was such as to prove that the same description of channels had been caused in it as in the portions of blood previously examined. The principal ground for this opinion seems to have been that the channels were uniformly larger than the arteries from the surface with which they were connected. As pus is conceived to contain globules similar to those of the blood, he observes that we can explain the principle on which granulations are formed; since, by inspissation of the fluid and the extrication of carbonic acid-gas, channels are produced which afterward become vascular.

With respect to these two papers, we may remark that the facts which they contain are extremely curious, while the hypothesis which is derived from them is perhaps the most remarkable of any that occurs in modern physiology. Mr. Bauer's authority is, however, of the highest kind: we can scarcely venture to suppose that he has been mistaken in all the appearances which he describes; and we are able to urge no particular objection against them, except their general improbability.

On the Fallacy of the Experiments in which Water is said to have been formed by the Decomposition of Chlorine. By Sir H. Davy, LL.D. F.R.S.—This paper refers to the controversy which still exists respecting the nature of chlorine; and more especially to a series of experiments that were lately performed at Edinburgh, in which the decomposition of this body was conceived to be proved by the formation of water during the action of muriatic gas on metals. By repeating the processes, Sir Humphrey was led to account for the appearance of the water on a different principle, and to conclude that it was derived from sources which were not suspected by the Scotch experimentalists. Those which are supposed to have been the most efficient, in leading to the erroneous conclusion, are the action of the muriatic gas on the oxyd of lead and the alkali that entered into the composition of the glass tubes that were employed; by which small portions of oxygen would be disengaged, and united to the hydrogen in the muriatic gas. Oxygen would also be derived from a small quantity of common air, that was contained in the tubes employed; which was proved by repeating the experiment after the apparatus had been filled with hydrogen-gas. When every precaution was taken to avoid these sources of error, the quantity of water generated was reduced to a very small amount, so as to confirm the opinion that it was rather an accidental than an essential product.

Art. IX. *Junius. Sir Philip Francis denied!* A Letter addressed to the British Nation. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Williams. 1817.

Art. X. *A Supplement to Junius identified,* consisting of Fac-similes of Hand-writing and other Illustrations. 8vo. pp. 38. 3s. Taylor and Hessey.

The first of these appeals to the public may be very soon discussed, since it is nothing more than a reiterated attempt on the part of Mrs. Serres, niece of the late Dr. Wilmot, (see M. R. vol. lxxii. p. 94.) to prove that this reverend gentleman was the author of the Letters of Junius. The fair reasoner does not dwell on coincidences of style or of sentiment between these letters and the acknowleged compositions of her reverend relative, but confines her course of argument to the resemblance of the hand-writing. In a MS. of Dr. W. in her possession, the word *David* is, it seems, an exact counterpart of the same word in the MS. of Junius belonging to Mr. Woodfall; and the letters *i*, *e*, *w*, *d*, and *n* are, wonderous to relate, all turned in the same way! Another grand argument for identity is derived from some of Lord Chatham's letters to Dr. W.; in which his Lordship compliments the Doctor on the energy of his language, and invites him "to meet him as usual at Lord A——'s." This condescending familiarity was by no means the limit of Dr. W.'s political conquests; the Bishop of Winchester and the Margravine of Anspach were in the circle of his acquaintance; the Marchioness of Tavistock corresponded with him; Mr. Wilkes was intimate with the family of the Wilmots; and, if regular entries of arrivals from England at Calais are kept, it will appear, says this lady, that Mr. Wilkes accompanied Mr. R. Wilmot to Calais on the marriage of the latter. The last of these potent arguments is that the water-mark of the paper, on which Woodfall's MS. is written, is exactly the same with the water-mark of a book of Dr. W.'s writing, in the possession of his niece!

We come next to a living personage, and one whose title to the laurels of Junius has of late attracted considerable attention; viz. Sir Philip Francis. On the appearance, five years ago, of the first pamphlet which charged that political veteran with this awful responsibility, we took occasion (vol. lxxi. p. 446.) to expose what we considered as the futility of the arguments, and the art with which the author of that tract had contrived to direct the curiosity of the public towards a person of notoriety. This author, whoever he is, has since returned to the charge; and in his second pamphlet, intitled a 'Supplement to Junius identified,' he has presented us with comparative *fac-similes* of the hand-writing of Junius and Sir Philip. These appeals to ocular evidence are followed by others addressed to our reasoning faculties; in which the author modestly sets out with supposing that the identity is established, and that the only remaining question is whether Sir Philip Francis was the *sole* author of the Letters of Junius. He proceeds to make various extracts from Woodfall's enlarged edition of Junius, (reported in M. R. vol. lxxi. p. 367.) and reasons (pp. 7, 8, 9.) first on the similarity of the penmanship of Sir Philip and Junius; and next on the resemblance in their mode of punctuating, distinguishing quotations, and spelling particular words, such as *masque*, *risque*, *endeavor*, &c. He forgets, however, to admit that an interval of twenty years occurs between the dates of the specimens of the unknown writer and of those of Sir P. F.; a time in which the hand-writing of any person can scarcely fail to undergo a great change. The grand features of resemblance, however, are said to be that Sir Philip, in signing his name, is accustomed to write a dash over and under it, exactly like the dash adopted by Junius in his assumed signature; and that, in correcting the press, Junius used as a sign of deleting the Greek δ with a long stroke before it, instead of the ₰ commonly applied on such occasions; all which is stated as if Junius, the most cautious of mankind, would have been so weak as to continue the same peculiarities of penmanship in his acknowleged which he had adopted in his concealed character.

The main argument *against* Sir P. F., and that which will surely be decisive with any person who examines the matter to the bottom, is that, in the course of a long life, he has produced nothing of equal talent or energy with the letters of Junius. If we look at the list of his publications and speeches, appended to the pamphlet under review, we shall find a series of respectable compositions, chiefly on India-topics, but nothing that bears the stamp either of the powers or the malignity of Junius. Sir Philip was the son of the Rev. Dr. Francis, the well known translator of Horace, and at the time of the execution of that work was not even introduced to the political characters of the day; nor did he become a public man till a number of years afterward, on his return from India, when his familiarity with the affairs of that country supplied the materials of speeches and pamphlets, while the attainment of comparative ease in his pecuniary circumstances allowed him to give his undivided time to public affairs. Is it likely that, at the early age of twenty-five, having passed his youth in the uninstructive routine of the war-office, he should have been capable of discussing such high matter in so finished a style: or is it possible that, after such a magnificent promise in early youth, so mighty a champion should have deteriorated, during more than forty-five years, into comparative tameness?—None of the arguments brought forwards on the affirmative side of the question, with regard to Sir P. F., will stand the test of inquiry. They have at first sight a certain degree of plausibility, and, when strung together in lively succession, may be adapted to fix the attention of the mere confiding class of readers; while the fabricators of these *sophismes ingénieux* derive an ample fund of amusement from the credence which they receive: but the venders of these praise-worthy compositions look for something more substantial than mere amusement: the first pamphlet relative to Sir P. we termed an ingenious effort to tax the public at the rate of five shillings a-head: but, at the close of the present, we observe an advertisement of the said pamphlet, with a *fine portrait*, at the moderate price of twelve shillings!

Of the candidates who have yet involuntarily appeared, the most likely, perhaps, are Lord George Sackville and Horne Tooke. The pretensions of the latter, if the name of pretensions can be given to that which in his case would imply a gross deception on the public, were fully discussed in our lxxxiid volume, in a report of two pamphlets not anonymous like the present, but avowed by the Reverend J. B. Blakeway. The investigators of this much-disputed point would do well to fix their attention not on an apparent resemblance of hand-writing, or on petty points of coincidence, such as particular turns of style, but on the grand features that marked the redoubted champion. He was evidently an Englishman, highly educated, and thoroughly versed in the language, the constitution, and the history of his country; in habits of confidential intercourse with persons who were familiar with the court; irritable and impetuous in temper; subject to strong personal animosities and political prejudices; and, though acquainted with English judicature, not a lawyer by profession. To these personal characteristics, is to be added the important fact that, during the five years which intervened from the spring of 1767 to that of 1772, he resided almost constantly in London or its neighbourhood. By such tests as these, of matters that cannot be disputed, all conjectures relative to Junius should be tried; and, if they will not coincide with those facts, all other supposed coincidences must be deemed illusory.

Art. XI. *The Universal Herbal;* or, Botanical, Medical, and Agricultural Dictionary. By Thomas Green. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 784. With coloured Engravings. 3l. 6s. Boards. Nuttall and Co. 1816—1818.

Perhaps no work could be planned which would be more truly and universally useful, than one that presented an accurate detailed description of all known plants; together with an account of their uses, and the best modes of their propagation, according to the most recent improvements. Such an undertaking, however, would require the united labours of several individuals, for a period of such duration that little emolument could be expected by those who determined to execute the task in a correct and conscientious manner. A work of this nature would require the exertions of an accurate botanist, — of an able horticulturist, who was acquainted also with the field-culture of plants, — and of a proficient in the *materia medica*, who to his medical knowlege added such an acquaintance with those arts and manufactures in which plants are used, as would enable him to speak with clearness and decision of the processes to which they are submitted, and the modes of their employment. The only attempt of this description in our language, that deserves to be mentioned, is "The Gardener's and Botanist's Dictionary" of Miller, edited and improved by Professor Thomas Martyn; — a most valuable but ponderous and expensive book, the result of the labours of a practical gardener and a scientific botanist. On consulting this rich store of botanical information, it has always struck us that an abridgement of these weighty volumes, with the introduction of all the more recent improvements, would form a most desirable present both to scientific and practical botanists. We have to lament, in Professor Martyn's work, the very diffuse style in which it is written; for it consists rather of a multitude of quotations, joined one to another, than of a continuous composition: many things which it contains might be altogether omitted; and very much might be condensed into a comparatively small compass. Still this Dictionary possesses a sterling merit, which must always render it a valuable and favourite store of information to the gardener and the botanist.

The object of the production before us is explained by the author in the following terms:

'The design of the Universal Herbal is to present the public with a compendious system of medical and botanical knowledge, drawn from the most authentic sources: pointing out the best methods of cultivating those vegetables which are most useful either as medicines, or for the necessaries and conveniences of life; and perfecting the whole by the addition of the most valuable agricultural information of every kind. The botanical student will here find himself led by an easy gradation into the midst of that delightful science. A copious Introduction, Analysis, Rules for ascertaining to what Class, Order, Genus, and Species, any Plant he may meet with belongs; and a Dictionary of Botanical Terms, to which excellent explanatory plates are added, will assist him at every step: while all the botanical characteristics of every known plant worthy of notice in the world, *alphabetically arranged according to the Linnæan system*, will enable him to prosecute and to complete this enchanting study, without the aid of any other book. To the country housekeeper, the rules for gathering and drying herbs cannot but be very acceptable, as they will enable him to collect and preserve those which are eminent for their healing virtues; and the plate of British medicinal plants, by which the most ignorant may easily distinguish them, will make this part of the work both interesting and complete. The farmer and the gardener also will find here all that is really useful, or even curious, in their respective occupations; forming a fund of accurate and useful agricultural knowledge, which cannot be elsewhere obtained at so cheap a rate. No other work comprehending all these important objects has hitherto appeared upon so small a scale; and as these objects are essentially interwoven with the health, comfort, and prosperity of the community, particularly of that invaluable part of it, the country people, no pains have been spared to make it plain and instructive, as well as complete.' (Advertisement.)

After this brilliant display of the great and numerous advantages to be drawn from the Universal Herbal, and the important benefit which its publication is to confer on society, we must be allowed to give our opinion of its real nature. It is, in fact, very little else than an abridgement of the Dictionary of Professor Martyn: though pains have been evidently taken to keep this circumstance out of view, by the title given to the publication, by the mode of arranging the different parts of the descriptions which it contains, by the frequent introduction of long forgotten and absurd applications of plants, and by an attempt to hold out the work as fitted for the perusal of charitable matrons and rustic herbalists. Impressed with a high sense of the value of the information which his book contains on the subject of medicinal preparations, the author observes: 'The apothecaries will not be pleased with thus disclosing the mysteries of their profession: but the *public good* is of more consequence than their pleasure.' (P. 45.)

Nothing can be a more gross mistake than to suppose that our native medicinal plants are innocent, and may be safely intrusted to the hands of the inexperienced. The action of Fox-glove, of Hemlock, of Deadly Nightshade, and many other plants, is well known to be of such a nature as to require the greatest caution and knowlege in their exhibition. Indeed, it may be laid down as an invariable rule that no powerfully useful medicine, whether of native or exotic growth, can be given with impunity to persons in health, or to those whose cases do not peculiarly require its use. As to those plants which yield a mild mucilage, and are extolled for their diuretic and diaphoretic virtues, we believe that cold spring water will prove fully as beneficial. The advancement of information, we had hoped, would have prevented any attempt at reviving the old system of "Every Man his own Doctor," and at converting the country-residences of gentlemen into rural dispensaries, where the poor may receive gratuitous advice and medicine. The intention of Mr. Green, however, as it appears in the body of the volume, was not so much to effect this object, as to give a popular air to the Universal Herbal; and thus to obtain an extensive sale for a publication which cannot be perused with advantage by any but a botanist. No very marked attention is paid to the introduction of vulgar names, nor do we perceive any endeavour to give an easy and popular character to the descriptions even of the most common plants.

The volume commences with an Introduction to Botany, which is intended to make us acquainted with the elementary principles of that science, and with the arrangement of the celebrated Linné. On the subject of the Theory of Vegetation, the author has remarked with some justice, that 'our knowledge is very slight and superficial;' and he goes on to convince his readers of the truth of this assertion by the following passage:

> 'On making a transverse section of a tree, *i.e.* cutting it through horizontally, it appears to consist of three parts: I. The bark, which is *also* subdivided into two parts; 1. The cuticle, or external covering, which consists of numerous layers of circular fibres or threads, which are *easily* separated from each other. 2. The true bark, which appears upon removing the former, and is a collection of cellular or spongy substances, containing two kinds of organs; the vessels peculiar to the plants, and the longitudinal fibres or perpendicular threads. II. On removing the bark, the wood appears. It has been discovered to contain the *vasa propria*, or proper vessels, and longitudinal fibres, besides large vessels with spiral or *curved coats*, running from one end of the tree to the other, *and are* denominated *vasa aëria*, or air vessels, which are chiefly situated in the wood, leaves, and petals, but are not found in the bark of trees, nor in herbaceous plants. They are called air vessels, because they contain *no liquor*, and because *large quantities of air* are generally found wherever they are placed; and hence they are supposed to be the organs of respiration or *breathing in vegetables;* but in what manner this function is performed is not clearly understood. III. In the centre of the tree is the pith, which is of a similar structure in all vegetables; and is very plentiful in young plants, but as they *ripen* dries up, and appears in smaller quantities, and in aged trees altogether disappears. Between the wood and the pith lies a green-coloured substance called the *corona*, or crown, which is said to contain all the parts of young plants in embryo.'

Here the author has totally omitted any mention of the green *parenchyma* of the bark, which performs such important functions for the vegetable, more particularly in the leaf; and he has not said a syllable of the *Liber*, that internal layer of bark which in our common forest-trees, and similarly constructed vegetables, is the source of their continual increase. The air-vessels of former times are now known by the name of Spiral Tubes, and both their structure and functions have been greatly elucidated by the discoveries of Knight, Mirbel, and others. The notions of Mr. Green with regard to the medullary sheath, which, with Hill, he names the crown, are more crude even than the embryos which he supposes to inhabit it: but indeed the whole of his ideas on these subjects convince us, that he has been contented to copy from works that are now obsolete, and almost forgotten.

The illustration of the Linnéan system is attempted in a sort of analytical table, which can be of little or no use to any but those who have already made some progress in botany; and it presents the system in that undisguised sexual form, which it has been an object with the best modern writers to conceal. In the present day, we can dispense with the literal translation of the language of Linné; and the right understanding of the classes and orders of his system does not require that we should name the *Stamina* husbands, and the *Pistils* wives. Several errors occur in the details of this table: *Dodecandria* is explained to mean '12 stamina,' though the author ought to have known that the plants of this class have from twelve to nineteen; and *Polyandria* is stated to contain plants having 'many stamina, generally more than twenty, not attached to the calyx;' while the correct definition of this class is, *Stamens numerous, inserted in the receptacle.* A very imperfect account of the orders of the Linnéan system is given in a note; though it receives, indeed, some elucidation from the explanation of an accompanying plate, which presents examples of their several appearances.

A tolerably full explanation of botanical terms concludes the introduction to botany: but it contains many errors, of which it may be sufficient for us to point out a few, as specimens of the author's inaccuracy. *Acerosus* is translated *Chaffy*, instead of *Needle-shaped*, *Auriculatus* is translated Ear-shaped: but it means, furnished with little earlike appendages, such as we find some leaves to have at their base. *Bulbus duplicatus* (p. 23.) is explained in language which we are unwilling to transcribe; and which we would caution the author against using on any similar occasion. We cannot here refrain from repeating that he seems to have been studious, on every occasion, to bring back to view all the strong and disagreeable features of the sexual system, as well as those Linnéan terms which it has been the laudable object of recent writers in this country to abolish by every means in their power. The term *Calyptra* is explained to mean 'a veil or covering, placed over the antheræ or summits of the mosses, and in figure resembling an extinguisher, hood, or monk's cowl.' (P. 24.) Here the true nature of the fructification is wholly misunderstood, the capsule being considered as the stamen-bearing-flower:—an error into which it is true that even Linné himself was betrayed: but the discoveries of Hedwig, and his numerous followers, ought to have prevented the repetition of so gross a mistake, in the present advanced era of botanical knowlege. Mr. Green has explained the term *Diadelphia* to be 'the twentieth class of the sexual system, consisting of plants whose flowers are hermaphrodite, and have the stamina, or male organs, united below into *cylindrical* filaments.' (P. 26.) In the class *Diadelphia*, which is the seventeenth, the filaments are united in such a manner as to form two distinct parcels: but several plants, bearing papilionaceous flowers, are arranged in this class, though their filaments are all united so as to form a tube; of which the common Broom (*Spartium scoparium*) forms a striking instance. *Egg-shaped* is stated, with a singular degree of inaccuracy, to be 'a shape resembling the solid substance of an egg.' (P. 27.) We should be inclined to think that an egg-shaped leaf, which is the common application of the term, resembles the outline of an egg when represented on paper. *Imbricatus* is translated *indented*, (p. 29.) instead of *tiled*. *Pericarpium* is elegantly termed 'an entrail of the plant;' and *personatus* is translated *gaping*, (p. 31.); though the merest tyro in botany must know that it describes a flower, in which the throat of the corolla is filled up by a projecting palate. *Siliqua* is defined to be 'a pod, in which the seeds are alternately fixed to either suture or joining of the valves; in this it differs from the legumen, which has its seeds attached to one suture only.' (P. 34.) No notice is here taken of the central partition which separates the two layers of seeds, in this species of Pericarp.

The introductory portion of the volume is concluded by directions to guide us in gathering and preserving medicinal plants. Receipts are also given for preparing herbs according to the different forms in which it is usual to exhibit them. Here, however, the author has stepped completely out of his province, by offering formulæ for the preparation of the most common ointments and plaisters; and we would earnestly recommend all his readers to go first to the village-apothecary, however ignorant he may be, before they attempt the cure of any disease on the faith of Mr. Green's directions.

Throughout the work, the author follows Professor Martyn's edition of Miller's Dictionary, very uniformly, and often verbatim. The plan, however, which he has adopted in the descriptive histories of plants, is somewhat different from that of Martyn, and considerably more brief. Having given the generic and essential characters, Mr. Green considers the species in succession; detailing, under the head of that which is most common, the modes of propagation and culture best adapted to the greater number of the species; while any peculiarities of management are stated under the species to which they refer. Martyn, on the other hand, discusses the subject of propagation and culture under one separate division. Yet the obligations of Mr. Green to the dictionary of Professor Martyn are throughout so great, that we cannot consider this publication in any other light than as an abridgement of the former. Among multitudes of instances in proof of this opinion, we may mention particularly the article *Buxus sempervirens;* in which the author has copied so closely that he says, in the words of the Professor, but without any acknowlegement; 'I have seen whole mountains covered with it, (the box-tree) between Lyons and Geneva, but none of any size.' (P. 212.) The husbandmen, and 'country-housekeepers in general,' who read this passage, will naturally conclude that Mr. Green has visited France and Swisserland; and we should not have ventured to question the reality of his travels, if we had not found the identical words in the dictionary of Professor Martyn.—In copying from the Professor, Mr. G. has moreover often fallen into the most ludicrous mistakes, such as could scarcely occur to any one who was well acquainted with the subject which he treats. In speaking of *Aristolochia*, he remarks, '*all* the plants of this genus are natives of hot climates, and are propagated by seeds procured from their native countries,' (p. 121.):—an obvious error, as the author himself immediately shews by stating the 22d species, *Aristol. clematilis*, to be a native of England. This, like other mistakes, has arisen from copying hurriedly the expressions of Miller. (See Bot. and Gardener's Dictionary, art. *Aristolochia.*) A similar mistake occurs under the head *Astrantia ciliaris;* where Mr. Green remarks; 'This species always *require* to be protected by a dry stove in winter,' (p. 145.); from which we should be led to suppose that the plant had been long cultivated in England: but the fact is that this species is not yet introduced; and Miller has remarked "that this sort, *whenever it is introduced*, will require the protection of a dry stove in winter." (See Dictionary.) A laughable instance of the same description of error, in copying from Professor Martyn, is afforded under the head of *Cucumis Anguria* (round prickly-fruited Cucumber). Mr. G. observes; 'It is as indigenous as the Cucumber in the West Indies, but far inferior to it, although the inhabitants of the West India islands often eat it, and in the Sugar Islands often use it in soups, and reckon it an agreeable and wholesome ingredient.' (P. 398.) We had hitherto supposed that the common Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*) was originally a native not of the West but of the East Indies; and our opinion was in some danger of being shaken, had we not consulted the Dictionary of Martyn for an explanation of the passage above quoted. His words are; "The fruit of this sort (*Cucumis Anguria*) is eaten when green by the inhabitants of the West Indian islands, where it is indigenous, as Cucumbers: but these are far inferior to our common Cucumber." (Martyn's Dictionary.) The expression is perhaps somewhat ambiguous: but certain it is, that the round prickly-fruited Cucumber is merely eaten as our common Cucumber in the West Indies, and that the latter is not a native of those islands.

In speaking of *Kalmia latifolia*, Mr. Green observes; 'The noxious qualities of this elegant shrub greatly *derogate* from its peculiar beauty,' p. 782.; — a mangled transcript from Martyn, who says, "The noxious qualities of this elegant shrub lessen that esteem which its beauty claims."

We had expected that some attempt would have been made by the author to introduce such discoveries in botany, and improvements in the culture of plants, as had been made subsequently to the publication of Professor Martyn's edition of Miller's Dictionary: but nothing of this kind can be perceived, throughout the volume before us. None of the genera not admitted by Martyn are here to be found; a deficiency of which *Balsamita*, *Bauera*, *Berckheya*, *Beaufortia*, *Billardiera*, and *Cymbidium*, are instances: — nor has Mr. Green taken any notice of the following species: *Bocconia cordata*, *Chelone barbata*, *Claytonia perfoliata* and *Caroliniana*, and *Disa cornuta* and *spathulata*. The new arrangement of many genera, for which we are so much indebted to Sir James Edward Smith and to Mr. Brown, are not (we believe) in any instance adopted; in proof of which we would refer to the articles *Cnicus*, *Cæsalpinia*, *Cratægus*, *Asclepias*, *Asparagus*, *Alnus*, *Asplenium*, *Chara*, *Chironia*, and *Cucubalus*. According to Mr. Green, neither the *Azalea pontica* nor *A. Indica* has ever been cultivated in Europe: although we know that the former species was introduced into England so far back as 1793, and the latter in 1808. Several species, now admitted by the best informed writers to be natives of Britain, are not allowed to be so by Mr. Green: such as the *Achillea tomentosa*, not many years ago found both in Scotland and Ireland; *Clematis Vitalba*; *Chærophyllum aureum*; and *Cheiranthus incanus*. Under the head *Jungermannia*, Mr. Green substitutes the word *observe* for the contraction *obs.* of Martyn; which we must presume is a vulgar improvement on our language. In referring to the authors who have written on this genus, he follows Martyn verbatim, and takes no notice of the excellent Monograph of Hooker.

Having stated the very great obligations, under which Mr. Green has laid himself, to the excellent folios of Professor Martyn, we deem it but justice to say that, with regard to the medicinal uses of plants, he has often drawn from the original and accurate observations of Withering such matter as was not given by Professor Martyn; and that he has obtained occasionally from other sources curious and interesting information respecting the uses of plants. The articles *Conium maculatum*, *Dorstenia contrayerva*, and *Colchicum autumnale* are on the whole among the most favourable instances of the mode in which the 'Universal Herbal' is conducted. On the subject of the medicinal virtues of plants, the author has in many cases been indebted to the writings of Hill, Meyricke, and Culpepper: but of the value of the contributions which he has levied from these authors, we may form some conception when he tells us that the stem-leaves of the *Centaurea Cyanus*, 'when fresh gathered and bruised, will stop the bleeding of a wound even if a large vessel be cut: their use,' he adds, 'in such cases is but little known, but they surpass all other things of the kind, and may often be the instrument of saving life where a surgeon's assistance is not to be procured in time.' (P. 276.) From Culpepper, he asserts that the decoction or powder of *Bupleurum rotundifolium*, applied both externally and internally, is singularly good for all cases of 'hernia, especially in children before they be too old.' (P. 209.) The revival of such opinions, in modern times, requires no comment: they are not likely to obtain credit with the public; and they certainly cannot have the effect of heightening our opinion of the writer who can seriously repeat them. Among other antiquated fables, Mr. Green has transcribed, from Martyn, Dampier's history of the Cochineal insect: — a circumstance which admits of no apology in the present day, when the breeding and management of that interesting animal are so well described in the writings of M. Thierry de Menonville, and of the distinguished traveller Humboldt. The stories of Sir John Maundeville are scarcely more absurd than this account given by Dampier of what he never could have seen, and which was in all probability invented in the liveliness of his imagination.

We cannot dismiss the volume before us without remarking the numerous typographical errors, and the frequent instances of carelessness, with which it abounds. As the brevity of the 'Universal Herbal' cannot fail to be an object with the publisher, if he hopes to obtain for it an extensive circulation, we would suggest that still more attention should be paid to the condensing of the matter, particularly where it refers to the culture of plants. Much space might also be saved by omitting the particular British *habitats* of plants, which, in a work of this nature, are certainly by no means requisite. — The coloured plates, which accompany the volume, are more remarkable for the gaudiness of their tints than for beauty or accuracy. On the whole, however, they are tolerably though coarsely executed; and in all probability they may have the effect of obtaining for the 'Universal Herbal' an increased number of purchasers.

In the farther prosecution of this work, if it be continued, we would advise the author to bestow more time and care in abridging what he draws from the Dictionary of Professor Martyn; to consult such writers as may inform him respecting the most recent discoveries in botany, with the improvements daily making in the arrangement of genera and species, and in the propagation and culture of plants; — as also to withdraw his confidence from Culpepper, Hill, and Meyricke, transferring it without delay to the valuable work of Dr. Woodville on Medical Botany.

ART. XII. *A Treatise on the Poor Laws.* By Thomas Peregrine Courtenay, Esq. M.P. 8vo. pp. 170. Murray. 1818.

THE advocates for a moderate reform in the poor-laws, affecting their administration rather than their principle, have here a most powerful auxiliary in a member of the late House of Commons, of acknowleged talents; and who, from his acquaintance with the subject, was very properly selected as one of the Committee for their revision. In the first or introductory section of his able and dispassionate treatise, Mr. Courtenay shews, by very cogent arguments, founded on incontrovertible *data*, that the whole of the objections advanced against our poor-laws, as an entire system, are either unfounded or grossly exaggerated:—for instance, the peculiarity of such a system of relief to England; their tendency to produce a state of equality by eventually swallowing up the whole wealth of the nation; and the baneful operation which has been laid to their charge, as increasing an excessive and useless population. In connection with these national views of the alarm so generally excited on the subject, Mr. Courtenay (as we might expect) refers the extreme pressure of the poor-laws in particular districts, and their heavy burthen on the class immediately above those who receive relief in all, to our sudden transition from a state of war to one of peace, and the effects of such a change on our commerce and manufactures. It is honourable also to him, and pleasing to us, that a man of his station in society admits the claims of the poor to the relief of their wants from the abundance of the rich, in so distinct and open a manner as he does in the following sentence: 'It is surely, in the abstract, reasonable and just, that the excessive inequalities of condition which society occasions among men, should be corrected by a sacrifice on the part of the more prosperous, sufficient to preserve from wretchedness or actual destruction the least fortunate classes.'

In the second section, the author considers the project recommended by several writers on the poor-laws, in order to effect their gradual abolition by an immediate limitation of the sums of money annually to be raised for carrying into execution their compulsory provisions; and he very ably points out its injustice and inexpediency. As little is he disposed to lend a favourable ear to the proposition of Mr. Malthus and others, to fix now a definite period beyond which parochial relief should have no existence, but every one should be left to the contingency of providing for his own necessities and those of his family by his labour;—of trusting for relief to the hand of casual charity;—or of perishing through want. The same observation will apply to the modification of this principle proposed by others, of declaring now that, after the lapse of a certain number of years (say fifteen or twenty), no farther provision should be made but for the aged and the infirm. Still the question will perpetually recur, and with a force that *will* be answered,—

When the stagnation of trade, or the ruin of a particular branch of manufacture by the endless changes of fashion, shall throw thousands out of work, if no legal provision be made for their wants, are they to beg, steal, or starve?

On examining the various plans which have been proposed for the maintenance of the children of the poor,—conceiving it to be generally admitted that, until they *can* earn their own support, they at least ought not to be left to perish,—the author inclines to think the most favourably of that which was recommended by Mr. Locke and the Board of Trade a century ago, and since adopted by the Committee of the House of Commons in its Report. That plan appears to him, as it also does to us, the most practicable of any that has been suggested; and, in furtherance of it, he proposes a simple legislative enactment of which we most cordially approve; viz. 'That it should be a sufficient cause to be shewn before the magistrate for not relieving a man on account of the size of his family, that the overseers had offered to maintain the child in any house, not excepting the workhouse, whether in or out of the parish, of which the petty sessions should have approved as fit for the reception of children of the same age.' We agree with him that we ought to preserve (if possible) every child born in wedlock, and that we ought not to abandon even the progeny of vice. Still less, therefore, can we look with complacency on the proposal of the Committee to withhold support from the children of any marriage hereafter to be contracted between persons who, at the period of their union, shall not have a reasonable prospect of maintaining the family which they may expect to be the consequence of it. Nor should we recommend the alternative proposition of restraining the age at which marriages may be contracted, of which the issue should be intitled to parochial relief; though we readily admit that, if we should be driven to the necessity of adopting one of the two evils, this is the least. If children are not born *in* wedlock, they will be born *out* of it; and any direct checks on marriage among the lower orders will increase the proportion of their illegitimate children, which is already calculated at one-twentieth, to a fourth or a third part of their offspring. Such a state of things can only be prevented by visiting both parents with severe punishment; and the dread of that punishment will often lead to infanticide, where that crime would not otherwise have been contemplated.

In the event, however, of parliament finding it necessary to resort to *strong* measures, for the correction of the evils which have originated in the mal-administration of the poor-laws, Mr. Courtenay recommends, in preference to any other, that which would limit parochial relief to families of a given number, within certain specified ages; and he does this from a persuasion that the pressure would thus have a more equal and natural operation. The limitation he would regulate by the price of corn; a measure from which we join with him in anticipating, as a practical effect, the more general use by the poor, in seasons of dearth, of a cheap substitute for bread.

Of one very essential point in the system of the poor-laws, we think that Mr. Courtenay has taken a far more correct view than most other writers with whose productions we are acquainted: viz. the justice and expediency of finding work for such of the able-bodied poor as cannot find it for themselves. He justly observes, that 'no individual has a stronger claim upon the public than he who without any fault of his own, or improvidence in his parents, finds himself without the means of obtaining in his own country the food which he is able and willing to earn by labour.' He also contends, with great ability and an unanswerable force of argument, that, even admitting that no means of employing the poor can be devised but such as shall occasion a loss to the parish as their employers, that loss is rather a gain to the nation than otherwise. The ruin of individual manufacturers from the unskilful and unprofitable employment of capital, serious as may be its injury to them, does not necessarily affect the public in the same way: but, on the contrary, by promoting a quicker circulation of wealth, it may be productive of general benefit, on the sound principle of political economy that the more a nation spends the more it possesses. The employment which, in pursuance of these views, Mr. Courtenay recommends for those who, being able to work, should never have relief but on condition of working, is that of labour on such public undertakings as might be set on foot for the purpose of giving the preference to those which require the greatest proportion of manual exertion, and the least possible interference with private capital. Such are levelling hills, improving roads, cutting canals, diverting the course of rivers, &c. which are not *necessary* to the public, but by which it would be greatly benefited, in other respects than in the employment of the superabundant part of its population. In all these cases, however, care should be taken to adhere strictly to the great principle on which we have so often insisted, and which Mr. Courtenay strongly enforces; viz. that of paying for labour provided under the poor-laws, but at *a rate* of wages barely sufficient to procure a subsistence.

Following in the track of Mr. Courtenay's reasoning, we now notice with approbation the recommendation which, in furtherance of our common scheme, would prohibit all parishes from granting relief to persons in the receipt of any regular wages, whatever might be their amount. On the system of administering the parochial funds which is at present pursued, we are aware that this scheme is totally impracticable, because it would inevitably throw all the fathers of families on the parish: but, were a separate provision made for their children, which we trust would eventually be the case, nothing could have a more direct tendency to restore the wages of voluntary labour to their natural level; instead of being reduced, as they have been by the combinations of farmers in certain agricultural districts, so low as sixpence a day, the parish paying four times as much to make up the deficiency. Were a power given to the magistrate to fix from time to time the *maximum* of wages to be paid to the public labourer, a *minimum* would by that means be established for voluntary labour: an evil, of which every writer on the poor-laws has most justly complained of the pressure, would thus be effectually removed; and the wages of the industrious poor would once again become what they ought to be, fully adequate to their support. If the judicious plans for their employment, which are recommended in the pamphlet before us, were once set in complete operation, we are fully persuaded that, at least for many long years to come, no man in England would be in want of work if he were willing to perform it, either from the private employer or from the public. Those who have taken the gloomier view of our national resources have recommended, for this purpose, not merely the encouragement but the enforcement of emigration: but from such persons we would request an attentive consideration of the following admirable sentence of Mr. Courtenay's pamphlet: 'We may fairly give encouragement to emigration, but we cannot justly prescribe it, until the surface of our country shall have become demonstrably incapable of supporting the people, who are willing for that purpose to bestow their labour upon it.'

In the recommendations of the Committee of the House of Commons for the appointment of select vestries and permanent assistant overseers, and for authorizing relief to the poor by way of loan only in cases in which they have squandered away their earnings, Mr. Courtenay and we equally concur; as also in urging the extension of the latter measure to such paupers as shall have manifestly neglected to make provision, in the days of their health and prosperity, for a period of sickness and adversity. To the principle of discrimination now newly introduced into the administration of the poor-laws, we both look, with those who devised the measure, as the chief instrument of a reform 'by which the vicious and the profligate will be excluded from the relief intended for the industrious.'

The tenth section of this valuable pamphlet treats 'of schemes for preventing want, by contribution from the poor themselves;' and we wish that we had room to do justice to its very important contents. This wish, however, is vain; and we can therefore but very briefly state, that Mr. Courtenay advances some of the most cogent arguments which we recollect to have seen for the encouragement of benefit-societies, at least equally with Saving-banks, by giving them the aid of contributions from the parochial rate. This course he adopts from a well-founded preference of the system of mutual insurance to that of mere individual accumulation, in guarding the poor against the contingencies of sickness and want of employment to which they are unavoidably exposed; and, while we confess that our objections to this measure, from its apparent tendency to destroy that spirit of independence which it is so desirable to cultivate in the lower orders of society, are not removed, still the arguments advanced by Mr. C. in its support appear to be of so weighty a nature as to demand the most serious consideration. At present, indeed, his own mind is evidently far from being decided to meet the difficulties by which the compulsory execution of the proposal of the Committee in its full extent would be attended; and he therefore recommends a middle course, which, though we cannot here enter into any of its details, we are persuaded might be advantageously adopted for the avoidance of most of the evils to which benefit-societies are now exposed, without doing any injury to the operations of the novel and more favourite system of Saving-banks.

As to the two remaining points of discussion, viz. settlements and assessments, Mr. Courtenay seems inclined to support the suggestions of the Committee to a far greater extent than we are. These, however, are points of minor importance, not at present demanding more ample notice than we have already bestowed on them in former articles of our Review. Should they hereafter assume a consequence which does not now belong to them, we know of few writers to whose opinion on the subject we shall listen with more respect than to Mr. Courtenay; though it is highly probable that we may still dissent from it. At present, we must be satisfied with recommending this pamphlet, in which these two questions are but very briefly introduced, to the notice of our readers, and its general principles to the adoption of our legislature.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR OCTOBER, 1818.

MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 13. *Letters to a Mother on the Management of Infants and Children*, embracing the important Subjects of Nursing, Food, Clothing, Exercise, Bathing, &c. With cursory Remarks on the Diseases of Infancy and Childhood, with a particular Reference to their Prevention. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Burton and Briggs, Hatchard, &c.

In this sensible work, on a very trite subject, the author does not aim at any philosophical discussions or any abstruse speculations, but lays down, in plain language, those directions which are generally supposed to be the best established, and derived from the most correct principles. It is well known that the system of managing children has, of late years, experienced a very considerable revolution; and on some points a difference still prevails among those who may be regarded as the best qualified to judge. Under these circumstances, it is not to be supposed that we should in every instance implicitly coincide with the sentiments expressed in this little volume: but we must acknowlege that the writer supports his doctrines with plausible arguments, as well as with candour and moderation. We are not to expect in it any thing that can properly be regarded as new; and indeed it is rather to be considered as an excellence than as a defect, that the writer does not assume the tone of novelty on topics and in a publication like those before us. Yet certain parts indicate an original turn of mind, and a disposition to form a judgment which is founded not altogether on the authority of others.

We shall quote one passage, which is a good specimen of the writer's sense and discernment. In the chapter on the diseases of children, he enumerates the causes which operate in inducing disease generally, and thus continues:

'Prematurely attempting to elicit an evolution of the intellectual faculties, favors almost every species of constitutional disease, and produces new forms of human misery. So intimate is the connection between the mind and body, that if one is over exerted, the other invariably suffers. When the mind is put on the stretch, a determination of blood takes place to the head: consequently too early and too long continued exertion of the mental energies are very common causes of the worst forms of dropsy of the brain; and it is commonly observed that the victims of this prevalent and fatal disorder are children endowed with [illegible] of intellect, and such as early and [illegible] [illegible] exercise the powers of the mind. It [illegible] parents who witness this premature [illegible] of the intellectual powers, to moderate rather than [illegible] their [illegible]: lest the brain, which is as much an organ of [illegible] as [illegible] of motion, should be permanently [illegible], and the foundation be laid, if not for dropsy of the brain, for that [illegible] train of nervous complaints, which so [illegible] the existence of those whose mental energies and [illegible] are greatest.'

Art. 14. *Thesaurus of Horrors*; or the Charnel-House explored! Being an Historical and Philanthropic Inquisition made for the [illegible] of its Inhabitants! by a contemplative Descent into the [illegible] Grave! shewing, by a Number of [illegible] [illegible], as well as from Philosophical Inquiry, the [illegible] Power of fresh Earth in Cases of Syncope, &c. and the [illegible] Criminality of hasty Funerals: with the [illegible] Methods of escaping the ineffable Horrors of premature Interment!!! the frightful Mysteries of the dark Ages lai [illegible] which not only deluged the Roman Empire, b [illegible] over all Christendom for a thousand Years! [illegible] the Sciences, and subsequently reviving all the Ig [illegible] and Superstition of Gothic Barbarity! By John Sn [illegible] Author of the Mathematical Principles of Mens [illegible] &c. 8vo. [illegible] Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1817.

This extraordinary title belongs to a not less extraordin work, and may be considered indeed not merely as containing account of the subject of it, but as exemplifying the manne which it is treated. Cases have occurred, we believe, of i viduals being interred alive, and nothing can be imagined horrid than this circumstance: but we have every reaso think that such events are extremely rare. Were they frequent, we fear that Mr. Snart's *Thesaurus* would not prov most efficacious remedy for the evil. It is, indeed, a st mass of matter, of facts, opinions, speculations, exclama and exaggerations, all jumbled together, and plentifully fur with italics, notes of admiration, and such means of engagi attention of the reader; in which, however, they complete from their redundance. We would pay all deserved tribute intentions and feelings of Mr. Snart; but we cannot exten commendation to the execution of his efforts.

Art. 15. *An Account of some Experiments on the Vapour of* *Tar*, in the Cure of Pulmonary Consumption. By Ale Crichton, M.D. F.R.S. Physician to the Emperor and *ager-Empress* of Russia, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Unde

Every plausible attempt to cure phthisis pulmonalis dese certain degree of attention: the patients, if left to them must inevitably perish; and, although we would scarcely v to assert that phthisis is never cured when it is once forme but too well known that no medical treatment has yet afford reasonable expectation of benefit. It is therefore incumbent on us to examine with candour a proposal that is derived from a respectable quarter, though the project in itself should hold out very little prospect of advantage. Dr. Crichton states his case very candidly; informing us that he was induced to make the first trial of tar-vapour in phthisis chiefly by accident; and that the great benefit derived from it in the first instance led him to try it in others. Not satisfied with his own experience, he recommended the use of it to the physicians of the hospitals in St. Petersburgh, who likewise give a favourable report; and this body of facts is brought forwards in a modest and unassuming manner, not clogged with any theory, and not urged with an undue degree of pertinacity. Nine cases are detailed, in which the new practice has been pursued; two of these only were attended by Dr. Crichton himself, the remaining seven being under the care of the physicians to the hospitals; and benefit of a most marked kind was derived in nearly the whole, while in five or six a perfect cure is stated to have been accomplished.

Are we, then, to suppose that a discovery has at length been made of a remedy for this hitherto irremediable disease? Are we to believe that, after all the flattering expectations which have been raised from time to time, and which have always finally proved fallacious, we are now become so fortunate as to have arrived at a certain conclusion, in which we are no longer liable to meet with the accustomed disappointments? We are sorry that we cannot state to our readers the probability that any expectations of this kind can be realized: but we will go so far as to say that, in those cases in which no other prospect of benefit appears, and the progress of the disease seems certain and inevitable, the inhalation of the vapour of tar may deserve to be tried; and that probably in this way some alleviation of the patient's sufferings may be obtained, and his end may be rendered more tranquil, if the fatal event be not averted.

We transcribe the author's brief directions for the application of the remedy: 'The simplest and best manner of filling a room with the vapour is to place the vessel containing the tar over a spirit-lamp, taking care that it should boil slowly, and not burn. The vessel should be well cleaned every day, and the fumigation repeated every three hours.'

Art. 16. *Remarks on Arsenic,* considered as a Poison and a Medicine; to which are added five Cases of Recovery from the Poisonous Effects of Arsenic, together with the Tests so successfully employed for detecting the White Metallic Oxide; in which those satisfactory Methods, peculiar to Mr. Hume, were principally adopted, confirmed, and compared with others formerly in use. By John Marshall, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 163. 7s. Boards. Callow. 1817.

The cases which are related in this treatise are those of the family of Turner in Chancery Lane, and Eliza Fenning, their cook; who, in the spring of 1815, excited so much of the public attention, in consequence of a singularly horrid attempt that was made to poison them by mixing arsenic with their food. Mr. Marshall was one of two medical men who were called in; and having witnessed all the effects produced by the action of this mineral, and attended very narrowly to all the morbid phænomena, he has naturally deemed the cases of sufficient importance to be laid before the public. Contrary, however, to the statement in the title-page, the cases come first, and the remarks are added; an order which is preferable to the other: so that, in this respect, he does not do justice to his own work. The first chapter, or as Mr. M. terms it, the first article, consists of a narrative of the cases; it is drawn up with minuteness, and cannot but be regarded as interesting: yet it affords a proof that something more than minuteness is required from the relater of mere matters of fact. To derive the proper degree of benefit from them, it is necessary to observe through the medium of the understanding; to give to each occurrence its due share of weight; not to dwell on circumstances that are trifling and pass hastily over those which are highly important; and, above all, not to suffer previous opinions to distort the impressions made on the senses, so as to induce the narrator, without his being conscious of it, to relate what has been passing in his own mind instead of what has been passing around him.

In the second article, we have reflections and inferences deduced from the narrative. The author makes an observation in which we perfectly coincide, that the recovery of the patients was to be attributed, in a great measure, 'to the speedy and spontaneous operation of the arsenic, both as a powerful emetic and purgative.' The very symptoms, which from their nature and violence excited the most alarm, were in fact the cause of the ultimate recovery; for Mr. Marshall cannot suppose that much benefit was derived from any of his medicines, except as far as they might tend to regulate the process which had been established by the powers of the constitution. The castor-oil, milk, sulphate of magnesia, and manna, may all be regarded as more or less aiding the natural efforts: but, with respect to 'the saline draught in the state of effervescence, letting the alkali predominate four grains to every dose,' perhaps the most that we can say in its praise is that we believe it would be inert. In one part of his practice, however, we must do Mr. Marshall the justice to say that he acted with great propriety; viz. in the strict employment of the antiphlogistic regimen for a considerable time after the abatement of the urgent symptoms: the neglect of which precaution, we know, has been attended with fatal effects.

In the third chapter, Mr. Marshall argues the point at some length, whether the arsenic was not the less injurious to the stomach in consequence of its being taken enveloped in the 'tenacious aliment of heavy dough,' in other words, yeast dumplings; so that many particles of the poison would remain 'embodied in undigested portions of the dumplings,' and never come in contact with the villous coat of the stomach. This would probably be the case; and, combined with the violent *reaching*, (as the author terms the efforts at vomiting,) which were almost instantly excited, and the copious alvine evacuations that ensued, it may be presumed that only a very small proportion of the arsenic swallowed actually came in contact with the surface of the digestive organs. In consequence, the effects were principally those of a very violent emetic and cathartic; and to these, together with the mental agitation which so dreadful an event must necessarily excite, we may attribute all the symptoms that were produced, rather than to an actual inflammatory action in the parts, which probably is always the immediate cause of death.

A considerable part of this volume is occupied by experiments on arsenic, made with a view to ascertain the best method of detecting its presence, when mixed in minute quantities with food or with the contents of the stomach. On this occasion, Mr. Marshall obtained the assistance of Mr. Hume, the Druggist, of Long-Acre; whose name holds so conspicuous a place in the title-page, and who is again mentioned in the preface as having made some very important 'discoveries for the detection of the white metallic oxide.' It is said that 'they will be found infinitely to surpass, in beauty, rapidity, and accuracy, the crude methods that have been formerly had recourse to; these, however, are also enumerated, in compliance with those authors and lecturers on the science of chemistry who have recommended them; and in order more forcibly to exhibit the superiority and elegance of Mr. H.'s tests.' The authors and lecturers in question will no doubt feel a due sense of obligation to Mr. Marshall. Of his prudence, however, in applying to any person who was in the habit of performing chemical experiments, we cannot speak in too high terms of commendation; for he must have been, no doubt, fully aware of his own incompetence; and this he has most amply proved to his readers by a relation of his own unaided efforts, which we shall quote as perhaps the most remarkable instance of *chemical bungling* which has appeared in print during the 19th century.

'During the night of the 21st of March I employed myself, when I could spare time, in investigating and searching after the cause of the serious symptoms that so much engaged my attention. On examining the remains of the yeast dumplings, a small portion was first cut into very thin slices; white opaque particles were perceived pretty thickly and uniformly distributed throughout the mass, which were conjectured to be white arsenic. Having at that time no other convenient apparatus, I proved it to be so incontrovertibly, by the following trite experiment; which, independently of the symptoms, afforded a double analytical test of the dumplings having contained a large proportion of the poisonous mineral. One of the slices of the yeast dumpling was put on a polished halfpenny, and held over the flame of a candle on the blade of a knife, and thus reduced to a cinder; it gave out most unequivocally the garlic smell, which Mr. Ogilvy and Mr. Abbot, who were also present, particularly observed. On allowing the coin to cool, the upper surface exhibited a bright silvery whiteness, occasioned by the condensed fumes of the arsenic.

The knives were then examined which had been used at dinner; they were so very deeply tarnished, that an inquiry was made if any vinegar had been used in the sauce, and it was answered in the negative. However, by the above crude experiment, a much more satisfactory and positive proof was already discovered. Here it may be necessary to caution people from relying on a knife being *blackened*, as a *complete* proof of the presence of arsenic; for yeast itself, gooseberries, and various kinds of fruits, may tinge iron black; any thing of an astringent nature will do it effectually.'

From the promises held out in the title and preface, which are reiterated and even extended in different parts of the book, we looked forwards with some eagerness for Mr. Hume's discoveries: but we have been not a little disappointed in our research, as we find nothing with which all those who had made any proficiency in chemical science were not well acquainted. They amount, indeed, to the two processes for detecting arsenic by means of the ammoniaco-sulphate of copper, and the ammoniaco-nitrate of silver, varied in different ways, but not, as far as we can perceive, in any respect improved. It is rather doubtful what is the extent of Mr. Marshall's belief in Mr. Hume's claims to discovery: but it would seem that he supposes him to be equally the inventor of both the above methods, and perhaps in this opinion many of our readers will coincide. As to the test by means of copper, every person knows that it was discovered by Scheele; the one in which silver is used has been more controverted, and we shall not in this place enter on the discussion.

Mr. Marshall enlarges on many other topics in the course of this volume, such as 'experiments with arsenic upon human bile,' 'a safe and radical cure of cancer, by the application of the white oxide of arsenic, in the form of an ointment,' (an announcement which we might suspect to have been taken from the top of any quack's bill,) 'some practical remarks on the dangerous effects of arsenious oxide in the form of a lotion,' and some others of an analogous kind. We shall not, however, proceed to an examination of them, because they do not contain any facts that are particularly interesting; while those which are the most important are thickly interwoven with false physiology and incorrect chemistry.

HISTORY, &c.

Art. 17. *The Annual Biography and Obituary,* for the Years 1817 and 1818. 8vo. 2 Vols. 15s. Boards, each. Longman and Co.

We have here a new periodical undertaking, of which the first volume contains the lives of above twenty individuals who died in 1815 and 1816. The longest details are given in the case of Mr. Whitbread, Mr. Sheridan, and Dr. Ferguson, the well known author of the Essay on Civil Society. The other lives, for which the editor takes particular credit, are those of Lord Stanhope, Judge Hardinge, Mr. Johnes of Hafod, and Dr. Roxburgh of India. The latter part of the volume contains an article of considerable extent under the head of 'Neglected Biography,' comprizing particulars relative to remarkable personages; such as the Empress Josephine, our lamented countryman Sir William Jones, and others whose deaths preceded the year to which the volume is appropriated. Then follows an analysis of recent biographical works; and the whole is concluded by a biographical index of the deaths that occurred in the year 1816, which is compiled partly from private communications, but more from the news-papers and magazines of the day. — The editor has not given his name to the public, and declines in his preface any pretensions beyond the humble claims of industry and impartiality; he hopes that no exception will be taken against either his political or his religious creed; and that his work will be found, in general, devoid of error. We are more disposed to give him credit on the former than the latter account; having, in the course of a cursory perusal, discovered several mistakes, which, though not very important in themselves, are of consequence as implying the probability of similar errors in various parts of the book.

The volume for 1818 comprizes sixty biographical sketches, the editor having avoided the undue prolixity that prevailed in several of the lives in the former volume. It contains also, like its predecessor, an article under the head of 'Neglected Biography;' in which, among others, are notices of the late Drs. Vincent and Burney; and it has likewise an analysis of recent biographical works, concluding with a biographical index of deaths for 1817, compiled as in Vol. I. chiefly from the columns of magazines and news-papers. This volume, though composed on a better plan than the first, is still liable to considerable animadversions on the ground of inaccuracy. In the life of Mr. Horner, the appointment of that gentleman as a commissioner for investigating the claims on the Nabob of Arcot is wrongly placed in point of date; and even his nomination as a member of the Bullion-committee is given (p. 269.) at a date that is erroneous by more than a year. In p. 289., we have Jefferies for Jeffrey; in page 92., and repeatedly afterward, Philip III. of Spain, for Philip II.; while in p. 72. Dr. Disney is said to have left 'five amiable daughters,' instead of one. All these errors shew the necessity of the care with which a publication of the kind should be conducted; it being expected from the editor of an annual work, who is less pressed than the superintendants of news-papers or magazines, that he should scrutinize his authorities and correct the errors of the daily press. His province ought likewise to embrace a re-casting of certain articles; when, as in the case of the late Dr. W. Thomson of Kensington, the memoir furnished by a contributor is of too local a character, and contains allusions to individuals and customs which, however familiar to our fellow-subjects north of the Tweed, are strange and obscure to the majority of English readers.

With increased vigilance and exertion, a compilation on the plan of this obituary may be rendered a pleasant and useful record of the public characters of the age.

Art. 18. *Authentic Memoirs of the Revolution in France,* and of the Sufferings of the Royal Family. Deduced principally from Accounts by Eye-Witnesses. 8vo. pp. 353. 10s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Co. 1818.

This book is much more of a *family* than a *national* narrative; being composed chiefly from the publications of MM. Hue and Cléry, attendants on the King and Queen of France, from the memoirs of Abbé Edgeworth, and finally from the account given by the Duchess of Angoulême of her imprisonment. It begins with the assemblage of the States-General in 1789; and, after having recapitulated the removal of the royal family from Versailles to Paris, with the unfortunate attempt to escape by Varennes, it proceeds to the dreadful disorders of September 1792, and the trial of the King at the close of that year. The mournful tale then goes on with the sufferings of the Queen and Mad. Elizabeth in prison, until the death of both on the scaffold; that of the former taking place 16th October 1793, and that of the latter on the 10th of May 1794, which was little more than two months before the overthrow of her judicial murderers. The harsh treatment and consequent illness of the young Dauphin are next described; and it is not until after his death, June 1795, that we meet with any cheering or consolatory relations: the moderate party then at the head of the French government finding it necessary to postpone the release of the Princess-Royal, until the public should see nothing to dread in a political sense from this act of humanity. That event took place, as many of our readers will remember, in exchange for Camus, Quinette, and other Frenchmen who had been delivered over to the Austrian government by Dumouriez, in the day of his defection; a surrender of which the parties complained loudly at the time, but to which they doubtless owed the preservation of their lives, since they would in all probability have shared the fate of the other victims of Robespierre.

As this volume is little else than a compilation, it lays claim to no other merit than that of exhibiting in one view the materials hitherto scattered in separate works. We cannot omit, however, to animadvert on a slavish and even incorrect translation of French phrases; such as 'provisionary' for *provisional;* 'desiring to be reunited to her mother,' &c. &c. The particulars related are also frequently too minute, and derogate by their lowliness from the dignity of the narrative. With regard to the sentiments of individuals, one of the most remarkable disclosures is that M. Benezech, the minister of the interior in 1795, while bedecked in all the colours of republicanism, declared to M. Hue that he 'was in his heart a royalist, and satisfied that France would never recover her tranquillity till she resumed her former government.'

Art. 19. *A Chronological Abridgement of the History of England, its Constitution, and Laws,* from the Norman Conquest to the Revolution in 1688. 8vo. pp. 464. 10s. 6d. Boards. Payne and Foss.

The word *chronological,* in this title-page, suggests a more pointed reference to dates than we find to be applicable to the plan of the volume before us; since it is merely an abridgement of our history down to the close of Hume's work, with no other chronological feature than a separate paragraph for each year or series of years. We advert to this circumstance because persons, judging of the book from an advertisement, might imagine it to contain lists of dates and tabular statements on a chronological plan; though the only matter of the kind is a sketch, in columns, of the children of each sovereign, the cotemporary princes, and eminent public characters. In other respects, the narrative proceeds without any more subdivision than an ordinary history possesses. In point of composition, too, it discovers no prominent feature; the compiler detailing one event after another without change of style, and without much discrimination as to their relative importance; and he has not chosen to expatiate on any striking occurrence, such as the battle of Cressy or the battle of Poitiers, for which a space might have been provided by the omission or brief recapitulation of minor circumstances. The work, therefore, is neither more nor less than a condensed narrative of English history, with periodical notices of our manners and Constitution. Though fitter for occasional reference than continued perusal, we should expect the writer to continue it; the events that have occurred since 1688 being of far greater importance than those which preceded that æra, and the interest of the public in our history being generally in proportion to the recency of the period.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *A Letter to John Gladstone*, Esq. as Chairman of the Anniversary Meeting of the Liverpool Auxiliary Bible Society, April 8th, 1818. By Thomas Mulock. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

We have uniformly supported the great views and beneficent principles of the Bible-Society: but, as we know that all men cannot be of one mind on any subject, we cannot assent to that intemperate zeal which brands a person as an infidel who does not afford his support to that Society. Yet Mr. Thomas Mulock deals out his condemnation as authoritatively against those who happen to think a little differently from himself, as if he had a special commission for the purpose. He says, p. 8., 'If I am called into council upon the question whether an individual may oppose Bible-Societies and yet claim to be considered as a Christian, *I am bound to declare, that the Gospel assures me in characters of living and everlasting light, that no such person can be a Christian.*' From what part of the Gospel Mr. Mulock procured this assurance we cannot tell: but he certainly could not infer it from the great command of Jesus, "Judge not that ye be not judged." We shall not notice his remarks on the Archdeacon of Bath's objections to Missionary Societies, farther than to quote one sentence of his desultory *tirade:* 'With respect to the divisions which so painfully provoke the Archdeacon's querulousness, it may be shortly replied, that wherever the *power* of true religion prevails and exhibits itself, adorning the doctrine of God our Saviour in all things — opposition will be excited —*friends will be spiritually sundered — and families will feel the force of that dissociating principle, which by the mysterious appointment of the Most High, constitutes the standing miracle of the Gospel.*' (Pp. 18, 19.) If the 'spiritual sundering' of friends, and the operations of the 'dissociating principle,' of which Mr. Mulock here talks, be 'the standing miracle of the Gospel,' we must say that it would be fully as well if such a miracle were to cease, and if its place were supplied by a little more of that charity which "is not easily provoked."

Art. 21. *Observations on the Bible Society,* shewing that the present Method of distributing Bibles among the Lower Orders of People, tends rather to check than encourage the Doctrine of Christ. By the Author of the "Letters on the Propagation of the Christian Doctrine in India." 8vo. 1s. 6d. Simpkin and Co. 1818.

We are well aware that texts of Scripture may be divided into fractions, or severed from the contexts, and so perverted as to countenance the most pernicious doctrines, or support the most dangerous delusions: but what good thing have we in the world which may not be diverted from a good purpose, and transferred to a bad one? Are we to keep the Scriptures out of the reach of the largest portion of the community, because they have been wilfully misapplied or erroneously interpreted by a few individuals? The partial evil which, in particular instances, may result from the general distribution of the Bible, is as nothing compared with the great aggregate of benefits which it is calculated to diffuse, and has actually diffused. If the distress, the penury, and the woe, which more than twenty years of war and of political mismanagement have produced, have been at the same time productive of accumulated immoralities and crimes, we are not to charge these immoralities and crimes on the Bible-Society, nor on the late widely extended circulation of the Scriptures. A much more fair and reasonable inference would be that individual instances of depravity, considered in all its various forms, would have been ten times as numerous as they are, if they had not received a reasonable check from that vast expansion of scriptural and moral knowlege, which has so eminently distinguished the latter part of the present reign. If we have had to lament the most horrid details of murders and other atrocities, may we not, with a much higher degree of probability, impute them to the barbarizing influence and impoverishing agency of a long war, than to the diffusion of a work which not only says "Thou shalt do no murder," but which imposes a more authoritative restraint on the vindictive passions than any system of religion or of ethics ever did before?

The present author says, 'That a general use of the Scriptures can never lead the body of the people to truth or morality!' If by 'truth' he means religious truth, we do not see what else can so certainly, or so efficaciously, lead the great body of the people to the possession of it as the Christian Scriptures; and, with reference to 'morality,' as far as that term includes a practical regard to the several duties of life, we should wish the author to inform us what teacher can, in this respect, compare with Jesus Christ? Can any moral precepts excel those which he has delivered to us, in promoting the growth of every virtue and the extirpation of every vice? — We may convert wholesome nutriment into deadly poison; we may use that to kill which God designed as the means of preserving life: but, because a few individuals may thus abuse the gracious gifts of God, shall we therefore withhold those gifts from the rest of the community? Because one man chooses to drink a pint of pure alcohol, shall we refuse another a loaf of bread? The Scriptures have no more natural tendency to generate crimes, than a field of wheat to make people drunk; though the alembic of folly may extract vice or enthusiasm out of the one, as the alembic of chemistry may draw a noxious spirit from the other. — The author tells us, p. 7., that Henry VIII., in his wisdom, 'allowed only one Bible in each parish-church, and ordered the sacred book to be chained to the altar;' and he then adds, 'If his plan had been strictly followed, our church would now be more numerous and united.' How numerous our church might have been in this case we cannot tell: but we are convinced that the union of the members could only have been that of the grossest ignorance, and the most abject superstition.

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *English Finance*, with reference to the Resumption of Cash-Payments at the Bank; involving a gross Violation of public Faith on all Contracts made during the War; and producing to the Community a Loss, in respect of all Taxes, of near Eight Shillings on every Pound Sterling paid into the Government-Exchequer! By Richard Cruttwell, LL.B. Author of the "Crisis," or Three Letters to the Chancellor of His Majesty's Exchequer, &c. 8vo. pp. 152. 4s. 6d. Hatchard. 1818.

It seems that Mr. Cruttwell is the author of a letter to Mr. Vansittart, which was briefly noticed in our Number for October last, p. 217., and was declared to discover occasionally a sound idea and an appropriate remark, amid a host of rhapsodies conveyed in such diffuse and ill-arranged language that not one reader in twenty would have patience to travel to the end of the pamphlet. Similar animadversions are applicable to this his more extended production; the fundamental views being sound, while the mode of illustrating them is extremely prolix and obscure. Mr. C.'s object is to prevail on Government to adopt a most extraordinary measure, that of lowering the value of bank-notes from twenty shillings to twelve shillings in the pound sterling; asserting that the latter is a representation of its real value, the higher price being merely nominal, and admissible only in a state of war. It would be in vain to attempt an abstract of the various arguments with which he presses his favourite object, through more than 150 pages; and we should advise those who are desirous of investigating this mysterious subject to be satisfied with the perusal of the titles of his chapters, as containing a much clearer exposition than they will find in his text. Nothing can be more true than that our enormous taxation, and our Corn-laws, have depreciated money among us nearly 40 per cent. below its value on the Continent; and that this degradation is replete with distressing prospects to our manufactures, and to the productive industry of the kingdom at large: it operates, indeed, as a premium to emigration, and even to the transfer of capital, machinery, and industry: but the evil would only be aggravated by a violent interference with the state of our currency. We propose soon to communicate, at some length, our ideas on the financial state of the kingdom: but we shall at present confine ourselves to the remark that, though Mr. C. does not (to use an expression of his own) *blush* to declare the whole country in error, he can himself by no means defy such animadversions; since he falls (p. 63.) into the vulgar notion that, during war, we enjoyed a complete monopoly of the trade of Europe, and suggests (p. 142.) the chimerical project of creating an artificial capital. He is in error likewise with regard to some main points of his argument; the transition from war to peace, though productive of a certain change in the value of money, forming by no means that radical alteration on which he repeatedly dwells. He complains of the inattention of ministers and members of parliament to his writings, with as much confidence as if it were a delightful task to travel through a never-ending series of repetitions and vague assertions; and he is decidedly adverse to the resumption of cash-payments at the Bank, because, after such a measure, his favourite plan of reducing the value of the bank-note to twelve shillings would be evidently out of the question.

Art. 23. *A Second Letter to Sir T. D. Acland, Bart. M.P.*, on the Means of improving the Condition of the Labouring Classes and reducing Parochial Assessments, by adapting the Poor-Laws to the present State of Society. By Samuel Banfill. 8vo. pp. 28. Longman and Co. 1818.

We have great pleasure in meeting again with our old friend, Mr. Banfill, of whose first letter on the Poor-Laws we have formerly spoken in very favourable terms.* His second epistle seems to have originated in the publication of the additions to Mr. Malthus's very elaborate and philosophical work on Population, and of the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the Poor-Laws. — With reference to the first of these works, Mr. B. argues (and we coincide with him), that it would be as preposterous in us 'to regulate the policy of present society by anticipations of such doubtful and remote contingency' as those which are furnished by the arithmetical and geometrical progression of population, and of food for its support, as it would be to restrain our comforts and the extension of our manufactures by lessening the consumption of coals, because certain geologists have predicted that, in six hundred years, the bowels of the earth will be exhausted, and its inhabitants will no longer have any coal to burn.

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* See Rev. Vol. lxxxiv. p. 435.

Enforcing, as we have constantly endeavoured to do, the necessity of giving the able-bodied poor the opportunity of maintaining themselves by providing them with work when they cannot otherwise find it, — and insisting, as we confidently insist, that England has public resources and individual energies which will enable her to bear without difficulty the maintenance of her poor, if a right use be made of the laws enacted for their support, — Mr. Banfill urges on the serious attention of the legislature and the public that part of the Report of the Committee, which recommends the more general adoption of parochial and cottage farms, for the employment of the parish-poor in agricultural districts. That abundant resources for the support of the poor of England, not only in the present excess of her population but in the contemplation of an indefinite increase, is to be found in her soil, her fisheries, her canals, and other useful works, Mr. B. stoutly maintains; and he shews, from the agricultural returns of the kingdom, that more than a third of its surface, capable of cultivation, is yet untouched. For the employment of these sources of useful industry to the best advantage, he proposes the establishment of central boards in every district, under directors who are acquainted with the circumstances of the places for which they act. The object of such appointments is the formation of channels of communication on the general state of the poor; by whose united exertions that worst of all evils connected with the mal-administration of the Poor-Laws, viz. the seeking of parochial relief as a substitute for labour, might be checked and finally abolished. To this plan we can see no objection, provided that we steer clear of rendering the support of the poor a means of increasing the influence and patronage of Government. — In the appointment of a select vestry and a permanent overseer in large parishes, Mr. Banfill unites with us in supporting the suggestion of the committee; though his approbation of their projected alterations extends to changes in the law of settlement, to which we have already expressed our decided objection. In another point, however, *he* censures where *we* approve; viz. the separation of children from their parents, for the purpose of being maintained and educated in working-schools. — Notwithstanding these differences of opinion on minor topics, we cordially recommend the perusal of this second letter, as we recommended the first, to all who feel interested in the momentous subject of national policy; some of the difficulties of which it is well calculated to elucidate and to remove.

Art. 24. *Thoughts on the Results of Various Inventions for the Abridgement of Labour;* on their Co-operation with our Parochial System, and other Causes, in depressing the Lower Classes of Society; and on the urgent Necessity of Legislative Interference: with the Suggestion of a Partial Remedy. By the Rev. W. Edmeads, B.A., of St. Alban's Hall, Oxford, and Curate of Wroughton, Wilts. 8vo. pp. 100. Longman and *Co. 1818.*

This gentleman is one of the many writers on the Poor-Laws, whose ideas of the origin of the evil connected with them correspond with our own. 'Whatever is mischievous,' he contends, 'has originated in their mal-administration. It is, in itself, a system of noble policy founded on grand and benevolent principles, and capable of being rendered subservient to salutary and important ends.' In accordance with these views, Mr. Edmeads vindicates the Poor-Laws, as a system, from the charge of occasioning evils which evidently originated in very different and more temporary causes. One of these he conceives to have been the general introduction of machinery into our manufactories, and wherever a saving of human labour could be accomplished: a system which, though adopted at first from circumstances of a temporary nature, will be productive of permanent effects,—whether good or bad, on the whole, is a point on which our political economists are very much divided in opinion. We, however, have not time to enter into a review of their arguments on either side of the question; and it will suffice for our immediate purpose briefly to state our impression, that, in the present increasing demand for our manufactures, it is obviously a benefit: though, should that demand cease, or even be lessened to a considerable extent, it would as certainly be productive of evil. It has been estimated that about a fourth part of the number of people formerly required in our manufactories has been diminished, by the application of various mechanical inventions as a substitute for human labour; and it is therefore evident that, unless a proportionate increase has been occasioned in the demand for the articles thus manufactured at a cheaper rate, the poor and the country at large are losers by the alteration. It is apparent, also, that, by this increasing facility of supplying the markets, foreign and domestic, we are exposed to additional danger from sudden stagnations of trade, which at one blow may deprive thousands of employment, and of the means of procuring support. Without some legal provision for such a contingency, what is to become of these poor starving wretches and their families? Emigration to our colonies may and ought to be encouraged: but can we have any right to enforce it? Past experience ought, on the other hand, to convince us that we cannot rely on private and casual benevolence, either for the immediate or the permanent relief of so general a distress as that which is here contemplated; and which, in a large commercial and manufacturing country like ours, *must* occasionally arise.

The pamphlet of Mr. Edmeads is not very fruitful in remedies for an evil which it admits to be sufficiently appalling: but, few as they are, and opposed to the general views of political economists, they are such as intitle themselves to serious consideration. The first and principal of them is an advance of agricultural wages, even by the obnoxious plan of fixing their amount by the magistracy; should they not, without such assistance, speedily find their proper level:—but the reader will be able to form a fairer judgment of the merits of the author's scheme, if we let him recapitulate its leading features in his own language.

'That

'That the wages of all men in actual employment by individual masters shall be sufficiently high to maintain a man, wife, and four children — that those who have only two children, or none, shall subscribe to a parochial fund, in proportion to their capacity, to provide for future contingencies — that no man in actual employment shall be allowed in future for more than four children, from the parish rate — that no progeny from future marriages shall be entitled to parish support — and that such men, as have not actual employment, and are thrown upon the parish, fairly presuming that they are the least trustworthy and industrious, shall be kept (unless under the plea of age, sickness, accident, or infirmity) at the very lowest possible rate of wages that the law will allow, and during this interval of a few years, until time be allowed for the operation of the whole plan, their families maintained as they now are — and with regard to these men, a bar against the farmer from the employment of them at a lower rate than others, is to be provided by compelling him to pay the remaining amount to the parochial fund.'

Even admitting that this scheme were open to no objections, though it certainly is exposed to many which we have successively urged on other occasions, it falls far short of a complete remedy for the evils in question; since it can scarcely affect manufacturing districts sufficiently to be productive of any benefit. So far, however, as it goes, we recommend it and the pamphlet at large to the attention of our legislators, though by no means prepared to urge any part of it for their adoption.

TRAVELS.

Art. 25. *A Cruise;* or Three Months on the Continent. By a Naval Officer. Embellished with Coloured Engravings. 8vo. pp. 133. 8s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1818.

A true production of a son of Neptune; preserving the colloquial familiarity and the play of humour, which are so characteristic of our naval defenders, from the first year of their entrance into their humble quarters in the cock-pit. The writer, leaving London with a friend towards the middle of the last summer, landed at Ostend, and proceeded by way of Bruges and Ghent to Antwerp. The two last-mentioned cities are described at some length; after which the travellers proceeded to Rotterdam, the Hague, Leyden, Amsterdam, Utrecht, and, subsequently forsaking Holland, shaped their course by Brussels to Paris. The whole is written in a lively unaffected style, not exempt from blunders, especially in proper names, (as Bardolph for Botolph, Henry Quart for Henry Quatre, &c.) but put together with evident impartiality; and conveying, from the plainness of the style, a very clear account of the different scenes through which the writer passed. He censures in rather pointed terms those of our countrymen who represent Paris as a hot-bed of vice; alleging (p. 120.) that such pictures are much overcharged, and that the metropolis of France should not, in this respect, rank higher than her magnificent rival on the banks of the Thames. — The tract is too short to be used as a manual by a traveller, and is made up more of cursory remarks than of deliberate considerations: but the author is evidently a good-humoured observer, and one of the few who confess that the annoyance, occasionally experienced by our countrymen when traversing the Continent, is produced chiefly by their own impatience, and by their inattention to the usages of the people.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *Notes on the West Indies*, including Observations relative to the Creoles and Slaves of the Western Colonies, and the Indians of South America; interspersed with Remarks upon the Seasoning or Yellow Fever of Hot Climates. Second Edition. By George Pinckard, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. Baldwin and Co.

In the first edition of this work, which we reviewed in our liiid volume, the author intimated his intention of adding some new matter, if the public called on him to reprint his 'Notes;' and this he has now accordingly accomplished, by continuing his narrative from the time at which he left Demarara; with an account of his progress through Martinique, Jamaica, and St. Domingo. The new matter occupies twenty letters, which are written in the same style with the former, exhibiting precisely the same merits and the same defects. They contain some interesting information, apparently related with accuracy, and indicating a habit of minutely observing the occurrences that presented themselves: but, together with these valuable qualities, we have much needless detail of many trifling circumstances, of a personal nature, and which can prove neither amusing nor instructive to the public.

Dr. P.'s accounts of local scenery, although not written with correctness, nor always in the best taste, exhibit a kind of *naturalness* which renders them impressive, and which conveys the idea of their being faithful representations. We may select the view of the neighbourhood of St. Pierre, in Martinique.

'Leaving St. Pierre, with its fine bay, and the wide ocean, the ascent is by a steep path, between hills planted with cassada and coffee, leading to mountains still higher and higher; some covered with rich tropical productions, others clothed with wild woods, and the loftiest of them festooned with dark majestic clouds. At one part of the ride the path runs along a narrow mountainous ridge, whose steep declivities, on each side, are formed into fields of coffee and cassada. On the left, the deep vale below is loaded with sugar, and enriched with the silent meanderings of a river, which in its course through these (literally) sweet fields, wanders to the foot of a most rural village, and thence winds its passage onward to the sea. On the right, the more extended and equally productive valley is bordered by other hills, beyond which appears the broad expanse of the ocean: so that within the immediate view is comprehended all the variety of hill and vale, prolific fields, rugged mountains and wild forests, the roaring sea, a gentle river, a quiet romantic village, and the busy public town of St. Pierre. Were a spot to be chosen, it would be difficult perhaps to find another which so amply combines all that might be wished for in the most exquisite panorama.'

Some of the most valuable parts of the former work were those in which Dr. Pinckard gave the result of his observations respecting the condition of the slaves in the West Indian and South American colonies, and this remark will apply to the additional letters: but, after the lapse of twenty years, the picture might now be very differently painted. At least, we hope that this is the case in many respects.

The contrast between Demarara and Martinique, with regard to the aspect of the country and the manners of the inhabitants, impressed Dr. P. with a decided preference in favour of the latter; and he has given a comparative statement of the principal points of difference between the two situations, which is probably not exaggerated. The question is discussed at some length, whether the actual condition of the slaves is better in the French than in the English and Dutch colonies: but, although we meet with many judicious observations, which may tend to throw some light on the subject, we are not able to decide concerning it. On the whole, it would seem that the French slaves are generally treated with more familiarity, and form more of a domestic connection with their masters; and, though it is admitted that the French 'degrade the people of colour into mere brutes,' it is probable that those extreme instances of cruelty seldom occur, which form so disgraceful a feature in the character of the inhabitants of South America.

A short residence in Jamaica enabled the author to make only a few observations on the appearance of the country and the manners of the inhabitants: but these are, as usual, sufficiently characteristic. From this island, he proceeded to St. Domingo, where he remained long enough to have an opportunity of obtaining a stock of interesting information; which is rendered the more acceptable because we are in possession of fewer means of acquiring it from other sources.

Some of the Doctor's most important details respect the yellow-fever, the ravages which it had committed before his arrival in the island, and the symptoms which it presented during his residence there. Connected with this subject, we must not omit to notice his remarks on the climate, among which we may select the following:

'We have been exceedingly inconvenienced lately by a dry land-wind, from the east, which was equally parching as the distressing siroc of the hot regions of the old continent, and induced, very generally, the painful symptoms of influenza. Almost every person was heard sneezing as he walked along the streets. I was seized with great severity — my head, eyes, nose and throat, were in pain, and the air, as it passed into the lungs, felt hot and dry, irritating the membrane of the nose to an excessive degree. The attack was sudden — its effects continued three or four days, when, upon the wind changing, and the refreshing breeze returning, the malady rapidly dissolved away, in the defluxion of common catarrh. Whites and blacks, and persons of all the different shades of colour, were alike afflicted.'

One of the last letters, the fifty-third, is occupied with a summary account of the slaves and the state of slavery in the West Indies, which we apprehend was written, or at least retouched, since the author's return to England. It is on the whole candid: but we think that it exhibits a greater degree of tenderness towards the masters than we observed in the former part of the work, when Dr. P. spoke more immediately under the impression of the scenes which daily presented themselves to his view. The fifty-fourth letter consists of a description of the West Indian fever; written also, as we presume, from the author's more matured reflections, and therefore wanting in some degree that characteristic point which we observe in his actual descriptions: although it may, on the other hand, have the advantage of possessing more correctness. We shall make a quotation from this part, shewing Dr. Pinckard's general views on the subject, and with this we shall conclude; premising that we deem the additional letters at least as deserving of our commendation as their predecessors.

'After all that I have been able to observe, with respect to this dreadful complaint, I think that, considering it as a malady of the West India colonies, it may be correctly regarded as the effect of climate, operating upon exotic bodies. It is the fever of the country—an endemial malady, which attacks those, most severely, whose general vigour, and whose firmness or density of fibre, offer the strongest resistance. To look for it in ships and vessels,—to strain the eye across the ocean, in order to fix its birth-place upon the opposite coast of the Atlantic, or to trace its descent from the shores of the Indian seas, would be to overlook the reality in search of a phantom! It needs no foreign parent: the earth is its mother: its father the sun.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

The second favour of *W. M. S.* has been received: but, from a particular circumstance, the Editor has not yet been able to pay attention to it.

The same answer is to be given respecting the note from Bentinck Street.

In consequence of the letter from Strangford, the book mentioned in it has been procured.

We can make no use of the anonymous "*Hints respecting a Theory*," &c.

The object of *S. Y.*'s note has not yet come to our hands.

⁂ The APPENDIX to our eighty-sixth volume was published with the last Number of the Monthly Review.

☞ The GENERAL INDEX to eighty-one Volumes of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review is ready for delivery to subscribers, (who are requested to send to Pall Mall for their copies,) in two large vols. 8vo. price 2l. 2s.; and to non-subscribers at 2l. 12s. 6d.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For NOVEMBER, 1818.

Art. I. *Memoirs of the Court of Queen Elizabeth.* By Lucy Aikin. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In the page of history, a disproportioned space is commonly allotted to the great political events which induce some sudden and marked change, *viz.* invasions, conquests, or defeats, powerful alliances abroad, or successful rebellions at home; while the influence of domestic institutions on the character of a country, or even that of its religion, laws, government, prevailing manners, and opinions, seems often to be regarded as an object of secondary moment; at which the writer is required only to glance. When the tempest roars, we stand on the beach, and watch the waves with a deep and anxious interest: but that interest subsides with the storm, and we scarcely bestow a reflection on those laws of gravitation, of which the silent but unceasing operation restores the raging billows to a smooth and level surface.

The reign, or, to take a somewhat wider range, the *Age* of our Elizabeth was an age not of military enterprise alone, and of discovery: for the same ardent spirit which stimulated a Raleigh, a Drake, and a Cavendish to explore unknown seas, and to circumnavigate the globe, invigorated the literary exertions of Bacon, Coke, Spenser, Shakspeare, Jonson, Cowley, the Fletchers, Drayton, Warner, the gallant Surrey, Sackville, and others; who formed a constellation of poetic genius which diffused a bright and glorious effulgence over the hemisphere of Britain. As, consequently, no period in English history is more deserving of *study* than the reign of Elizabeth, so, in point of fact, no period has been investigated with greater attention in all its leading points. This, however, is not Miss Aikin's design in the work before us: the great charm of which consists in such rapid and lively sketches of individual characters as designate their influence on political events; and these, if not the prominent and leading objects of an historic picture, serve at least to illustrate and relieve them. Never, perhaps, has the personal character of any sovereign been exposed to a more scrutinizing and severe ordeal than that of Elizabeth; and the sycophancy and worse than oriental adulation of her flatterers has been amply avenged by the calumnies of her enemies, who have not hesitated to insinuate and assert that the frailties and even the grosser passions of the woman very frequently predominated over the majesty of the Queen. The recorded instances of her excessive vanity are indeed almost without number, and almost beyond belief. Vereiken, the Dutch ambassador, could tell her with a grave countenance at his audience that "he had longed to undertake that voyage to see her Majesty, who for *beauty* and for wisdom excelled all other princes of the world." Her beautiful Majesty was at this time sixty seven-years old! She accustomed herself, when the weather permitted, to give audience in her garden: the lines of her face were very strong: and this antiquated Venus sat there because she conceived that shadow lost much of its force in open daylight. Horace Walpole tells us that Vertue, the engraver, had a pocket-book of Isaac Oliver in his possession, in which Isaac had made a memorandum that the Queen would not let him give any shade to her features; observing that "shade was an accident, and not naturally existing in any face." Her portraits are usually without shadow. In the "Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors," is an engraving from the fragment of an old coin, in which Elizabeth is represented as ugly as one of the weird sisters in Macbeth; wizened, old, and blighted. It is generally supposed that, being shocked with the fidelity of the resemblance, or indignant at the caricature, she ordered the die to be broken: but that some curious workman of the mint cut out this precious morcel containing barely the face, for no specimen of the entire coin with this image is in existence.

These anecdotes remind us of a remark, in which we perfectly agree, of Catherine Macauley, an energetic historian who is now too little read, that "the vices of this Princess were such as could not exist with a good heart, nor her weaknesses with a good head; but to the unaccountable caprice of party-zeal she owes the reputation of qualities which would do honour to a masculine mind." However correct a courtier-artist might allow the Queen's remark to be with reference to the royal countenance, it certainly would be very inapplicable to the royal mind. *There*, alas, shadow is not to be considered as an accident; there, virtue did not beam with such perfect splendour, — did not shed so full, so unbroken, so dazzling a lustre, — as to absorb all stain of human error, and allow no shade of infirmity to exist.

Miss Aikin has too much good sense, and, let us add, too much honesty, to draw a garden-portrait of Elizabeth. The plan of her very amusing and well-written book comprehends a detailed account of the private life of this Princess, from the period of her birth; a view of the domestic history of her reign; memoirs of the principal families of the nobility; and biographical anecdotes of the celebrated characters who composed her court: besides notices of the manners, opinions, and literature of the reign.*

Elizabeth, the daughter of Henry VIII. by Ann Boleyn,

—— "The child
Of churlish winter, in her froward moods
Discovering much the temper of her sire,"

was born at Greenwich, Sept. 7. 1533. Her personal history, it is truly observed, began with her birth; for she had scarcely entered her second year when her marriage with the Duc d'Angoulême, third son of the French king, was an object of negotiation. If "fortune smiled deceitful on the birth" of Elizabeth's ill-fated rival, Mary, the beautiful Queen of Scots *, she seems to have cast no friendly eye, at this early period of her life, on Elizabeth herself. The English monarch, on receiving information of the birth of Mary, immediately conceived the project of uniting the whole island under one crown by the marriage of this infant-sovereign with his son, the young prince Edward; and the more effectually to accomplish this object, he offered at the same time the hand of his daughter Elizabeth to the Earl of Arran, who claimed the regency, and was generally regarded as next heir to the crown. The contrast is striking. 'Born,' says Miss Aikin, 'in the purple of her hereditary kingdom, the monarchs of France and England made it an object of eager contention which of them should succeed in encircling with a second diadem the baby brows of Mary; while the hand of Elizabeth was tossed as a trivial boon to a Scottish Earl, of equivocal birth, despicable abilities, and feeble character. So little, too, was even this person flattered by the honour, or aware of the advantages of such a connection, that he soon after renounced it by quitting the English for the French party. Elizabeth in consequence remained unbetrothed.'

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* It may be proper to repeat Miss Aikin's statement of the sources whence she has drawn her materials:

'Such persons as may have made it their business or their entertainment to study very much in detail the history of the age of Elizabeth, will doubtless be aware that in the voluminous collections of Strype, in the edited Burleigh, Sidney, and Talbot papers, in the Memoirs of Birch, in various collections of letters, in the chronicles of the times, — so valuable for those vivid pictures of manners which the pen of a contemporary unconsciously traces, — in the Annals of Camden, the Progresses of Nichols, and other large and laborious works which it would be tedious here to enumerate, a vast repertory existed of curious and interesting facts seldom recurred to for the composition of books of lighter literature, and possessing with respect to a great majority of readers the grace of novelty. Of these and similar works of reference, as well as of a variety of others, treating directly or indirectly on the biography, the literature, and the manners of the period, a large collection has been placed under the eyes of the author, partly by the liberality of her publishers, partly by the kindness of friends.

'In availing herself of their contents, she has had to encounter in full force the difficulties attendant on such a task; those of weighing and comparing authorities, of reconciling discordant statements, of bringing insulated facts to bear upon each other, and of forming out of materials irregular in their nature and abundant almost to excess, a compact and well-proportioned structure.'

After the death of Henry, Elizabeth resided with the Queen-dowager, (Catherine Parr,) who married the Lord Admiral Seymour. Here, according to the loose and gross manners of the age, she was exposed to the most indecorous familiarities from Seymour; which, to a certain extent at least, were rather encouraged than repressed by the royal step-mother herself. — It is quite amusing to see the caustic Whitaker, in this solitary instance, vindicating the chastity of the young Elizabeth, whom afterward he does not hesitate to scandalize as one of the most licentious women of her age, from what he calls the insinuations of Mr. Hume; who merely says that "Seymour made his addresses to the lady Elizabeth, then in the sixteenth year of her age; and that Princess, whom even the hurry of business and the pursuits of ambition could not in her more advanced years disengage entirely from the tender passions, seems to have listened to

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* To whom Shakspeare thus alluded in the "Midsummer Night's Dream:"

—— "Once I sat upon a promontory,
And heard a Mermaid on a Dolphin's back,
Uttering such dulcet and harmonious breath,
That the rude sea grew civil at her song;
And certain stars shot madly from their spheres
To hear the sea-maid's music."

the insinuations of a man who possessed every talent proper to captivate the affections of the fair." [Hume, Vol. IV. p. 316.] After having detailed some of the indecent familiarities of Seymour in the chamber of Elizabeth, and frequently before she had risen from her bed, Whitaker says, " This surely can justify no suspicion of Elizabeth: her woman was plainly with her all these times, or she could not have deposed to all these facts. At one other time, when she heard the Admiral coming towards her bed-room, she ran out of bed, hurried into the inner room where her attendants slept, and stayed there till he was gone. And we know too much of the free conversation of gentlemen to ladies then, as exhibited by Time's best copyist, Shakspeare; and see too much of their free manners in that age as transmitted down to the present .... to suppose the women unchaste merely because the men were romping." [Whitaker's Vindication, II. p. 501.]* How this gleam of candour could pass unextinguished across the dark and foul suspicions which impregnated the mind of Whitaker, it might not be very easy to divine. Elizabeth was undoubtedly trembling on the verge of perdition: at the age of fifteen, she suffered very frequent and indecorous familiarities from a man of elegant person, accomplished manners, high spirit, audacious, and seductive; who succeeded in making a deep impression on her too susceptible heart, who presented himself before her as a lover, and who had the presumption to solicit her hand in marriage. We do not learn that she expressed any of the resentment and indignation which might have been expected, even from a girl of fifteen, on such an occasion. On the contrary, Mrs. Ashley her governess, and Parry her cofferer, were the agents through whom a direct correspondence was opened between Elizabeth and Seymour; and the confessions of the two former before the privy-council shew how dangerous was the connection which subsisted between the Princess and the Admiral: while the favour and protection which Elizabeth, after she had ascended the throne, always continued to shew to these two servants, who were so treacherous to her early honour and reputation, afford ground of suspicion that they had yet kept undivulged some important secrets of which they were in possession.

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* Miss Aikin says; ‘ It should be observed in palliation of the liberties which she (Mrs. Ashley) accused the Admiral of allowing to himself, and the Princess of enduring, that the period of Elizabeth's life to which these particulars relate was only her fourteenth year." At best, however, this is surely but a wretched palliation. Whitaker adverts, perhaps maliciously, to her being "*only* 17 or 18 years of age," when these circumstances happened: for Seymour was executed March 20. 1549, before she was sixteen; and the Queen-dowager, who was not sufficiently circumspect till her own jealousy became excited, died in 1548. It was after her death that Seymour's hopes of obtaining Elizabeth in marriage seemed to have no other obstacle than the difficulty of gaining permission from the council; at which his hated brother, the Duke of Somerset, presided in the capacity of Protector. It seems not improbable that attempts were made to gain the consent of the young Princess to a clandestine marriage. If Seymour meditated any project of a fouler nature, we see no reason to suppose that Elizabeth had not, *at this time*, at least, both spirit and *virtue* enough to have repelled the outrage.

'The timely removal of this bad and dangerous man, however illegal and unwarrantable the means by which it was accomplished, deserves to be regarded as the first of those signal escapes with which the life of Elizabeth so remarkably abounds. Her attachment for Seymour, certainly the earliest, was perhaps also the strongest, impression of the tender kind which her heart was destined to receive; and though there may be a probability that in this, as in subsequent instances, where her inclinations seemed most to favor the wishes of her suitors, her characteristic caution would have interfered to withhold her from an irrevocable engagement, it might not much longer have been in her power to recede with honor, or even, if the designs of Seymour had prospered, with safety.'

Elizabeth passed her early years in the most assiduous cultivation of antient literature, as well as in the acquisition of modern languages, according to the fashion of the age. The sons and daughters of the nobility then emulated each other in storing their minds with classic lore; and Elizabeth, under such a preceptor as Roger Ascham, could not apply her intellects to any pursuit without surpassing many of her contemporaries. She could converse at the same time with the Imperial, the French, and the Swedish ambassadors, in Italian, French, and Latin, fluently and without confusion; and even Greek also she spoke with her tutor, "frequently, willingly, and moderately well." At this early period of life, too, she was as remarkable for the simplicity of her dress, as at maturer age she was ridiculous for the gaudy splendor of apparel which she affected.

During the short reign of Edward VI., who was accustomed to call her "his sweet sister Temperance," Elizabeth enjoyed every consideration to which her birth and rank were intitled, and which his affection could bestow. With the accession of Mary, — who, if she had the barbarity to inflict martyrdom on others, gave indications of fortitude to endure it herself, —

began the personal sufferings and perils of Elizabeth. The new Queen was not ignorant of the hostile feelings of the nation respecting the re-establishment of the Catholic religion, nor of the confidence and popularity which attached to her sister as the heroine of the Protestant party. The dying Edward had been induced by the intrigues of Dudley, created Duke of Northumberland, to dispose of the crown by will, in favour of the learned and accomplished, the excellent and unfortunate Lady Jane Gray; who, on the death of that monarch, was accordingly proclaimed Queen: but, when Northumberland apprized Elizabeth of the accession, and proposed to her terms for the resignation of her own title, she rejected the base suggestion with disdain, and equipped a body of horse, at the head of which she went forth to meet her sister on her approach to London. This conduct extorted a demonstration of something like sisterly affection: but it was of very short duration, for the graces of Elizabeth had inspired the Earl of Devonshire with a tender passion; while those of the Earl had kindled the flame of love even in the stern and ferocious bosom of Mary. The malignant jealousy which such a rival could not fail to rouse displayed itself in a prohibition, on the score of illegitimacy, against Elizabeth's precedence of the Countess of Lennox and the Duchess of Suffolk in the presence-chamber; and in a general alienation from all her friends. On the breaking out of Sir Thomas Wyatt's insurrection, with which Elizabeth had not the least concern, she was brought in extreme illness from Ashbridge to Whitehall, and shortly afterward was committed to the Tower.

'On reaching her melancholy place of destination, she long refused to land at Traitor's gate; and when the uncourteous Earl of Sussex declared "that she should not choose," offering her however, at the same time, his cloak to protect her from the rain, she retained enough of her high spirit to put it from her "with a good dash." As she set her foot on the ill-omened stairs, she said, "Here landeth as true a subject, being a prisoner, as ever landed at these stairs; and before thee, O God! I speak it, having no other friends but thee alone."

'On seeing a number of warders and other attendants drawn out in order, she asked, "What meaneth this?" Some one answered that it was customary on receiving a prisoner. "If it be," said she, "I beseech you that for my cause they may be dismissed." Immediately the poor men kneeled down and prayed God to preserve her; for which action they all lost their places the next day.

'Going a little further, she sat down on a stone to rest herself; and the lieutenant urging her to rise and come in out of the cold and wet, she answered, "Better sitting here than in a worse place, for God knoweth whither you bring me." On hearing these words her gentleman-usher wept, for which she reproved him; telling him he ought rather to be her comforter, especially since she knew her own truth to be such, that no man should have cause to weep for her. Then rising, she entered the prison, and its gloomy doors were locked and bolted on her. Shocked and dismayed, but still resisting the weakness of unavailing lamentation, she called for her book, and devoutly prayed that she might build her house upon the rock.'

Close and rigorous was her confinement here for three months; and, when she was at length removed to Woodstock under the more decent but equally effective custody of Sir Henry Beddingfield, who entered the Tower at the head of a hundred men, Elizabeth, dismayed at the sight, could not disguise the terror of her soul, but significantly inquired *whether the Lady Jane Gray's scaffold was removed?* Her acute sense of the contumelies and horrors which she experienced might, at a future period of life, when she held the Queen of Scots in captivity, have disposed her to the exercise of clemency and mercy: but she allowed no "compunctious visitings" to assuage the sufferings of her own wretched rival. Thus did it appear that personal and political rivalry was as powerful an incentive with Elizabeth to cruelty and injustice, as religious bigotry was with Mary.

At this early period of Elizabeth's life, the lineaments of her mind had already indicated a bold and vigorous character: Mary would gladly have put to death or perpetually imprisoned a sister whom she feared and hated; and no pains were spared by the detested Gardiner especially, and by others of her privy-councillors, to induce persons to criminate the Princess, and the Princess to criminate herself. When the testimonies of Wyatt at his execution, of Throgmorton at his trial, and of several other conspirators, at last confounded the malice of Elizabeth's enemies, and exculpated her from all participation and even from all knowlege of the insurrection, and of course when they had no longer any pretence for keeping her in confinement, her liberation was effected by the intercession of Philip: — not, however, from any generous emotion, — for in his cold selfish heart no generous emotion could find place, — but from a refined policy, which led him to foresee that, if that Princess were put to death, the next lawful heir was the Queen of Scots, at this time betrothed to the Dauphin of France, whose succession would for ever annex England to the crown of that kingdom.

'In the midst of her gloomy apprehensions, the Princess was surprised by an offer from the highest quarter, of immediate liberty on condition of her accepting the hand of the Duke of Savoy in marriage.

'Oppressed, persecuted, and a prisoner, sequestered from every friend and counsellor, guarded day and night by soldiers, and in hourly dread of some attempt upon her life, it must have been confidently expected that the young Princess would embrace as a most joyful and fortunate deliverance this unhoped-for proposal; and by few women, certainly, under all the circumstances, would such expectations have been frustrated. But the firm mind of Elizabeth was not thus to be shaken, nor her penetration deceived. She saw that it was banishment which was held out to her in the guise of marriage; she knew that it was her reversion of an independent English crown which she was required to barter for the matrimonial coronet of a foreign dukedom; and she felt the proposal as what in truth it was; — an injury in disguise. Fortunately for herself and her country, she had the magnanimity to disdain the purchase of present ease and safety at a price so disproportionate; and returning to the overture a modest but decided negative, she prepared herself to endure with patience and resolution the worst that her enraged and baffled enemies might dare against her.'

It shews at once the more than Turkish despotism, the savage policy, of the times, and the extreme anxiety with which the Catholic or court-party endeavoured to implicate the Princess in Wyatt's insurrection, that two merchants of London, for having spoken words injurious to the Queen, but principally for having affirmed that Wyatt at his death had cleared the Lady Elizabeth and the Earl of Devonshire, were set in the pillory, to which their ears were fastened with nails. The brave Sir Nicholas Throgmorton, who in the midst of his own peril felt a generous concern for the safety of Elizabeth, said at his trial, "that he perceived the net was not cast for little fishes but for great ones." By a courageous and inflexible jury, Throgmorton was acquitted: but the indignation and disappointment of the Queen and her ministers instantly broke forth. The jury were committed to custody; and eight of them, who refused to confess themselves in fault, were farther imprisoned for several months, and heavily fined. Throgmorton himself, notwithstanding his acquittal, was remanded to the Tower, where he remained till the following year; when, with other prisoners, he obtained his release through the intercession of Philip.

At the mature age of twenty-five, uniting the dignity and wisdom of a matron with the grace, beauty, and attraction of a virgin, Elizabeth ascended the throne of England, in the year 1558. Well might her accession be hailed by all classes of people with unaffected transports of joy. Her popularity was indeed excessive and unprecedented; and her magnanimity deserves to be for ever recorded, for having forgotten as a Queen the injuries which she had sustained as a Princess; distinguishing at the same time with her especial favour those who had been faithful to her in adversity. Parry was made comptroller of her household, Sir N. Throgmorton was sent as ambassador to the court of France, and Cecil was appointed principal Secretary of State:

> 'The private character of Cecil was in every respect exemplary, and his disposition truly amiable. His second marriage with one of the learned daughters of Sir Anthony Cook conferred upon him that exalted species of domestic happiness which a sympathy in mental endowments can alone bestow; whilst it had the further advantage of connecting him with the excellent man her father, with Sir Nicholas Bacon and Sir Thomas Hobby, the husbands of two of her sisters, and generally with the wisest and most conscientious supporters of the Protestant interest. This great minister was honourably distinguished through life by an ardor and constancy of friendship rare in all classes of men, but esteemed peculiarly so in those whose lives are occupied amid the heartless ceremonial of courts and the political intrigues of princes. His attachments, as they never degenerated into the weakness of favouritism, were as much a source of benefit to his country as of enjoyment to himself; for his friends were those of virtue and the state. And there were few among the more estimable public men of this reign who were not indebted either for their first introduction to the notice of Elizabeth, their continuance in her favour, or their restoration to it when undeservedly lost, to the generous patronage or powerful intercession of Cecil.
>
> 'On appointing him a member of her council, the Queen addressed her secretary in the following gracious words:
>
> '"I give you this charge, that you shall be of my privy-council, and content yourself to take pains for me and my realm. This judgement I have of you, that you will not be corrupted with any gift, and that you will be faithful to the state, and that, without respect to my private will, you will give me that counsel that you think best: And that if you shall know any thing necessary to be declared to me of secrecy, you shall show it to myself only, and assure yourself I will not fail to keep taciturnity therein. And therefore herewith I charge you."'

With what skill, courage, and felicity this minister conducted the affairs of the nation for more than forty years, our readers are well informed: but these things come not under consideration here. Miss Aikin has preserved to her work the genuine character of *Memoirs*, by avoiding all encroachments on the peculiar province of history. She introduces us to a long gallery of portraits from the court of Elizabeth, exhibited in the colours and costume of the age: but she has been contented to sketch in outline merely, though with a spirited and correct pencil, the grave historical transactions in which her heroes and heroines distinguished themselves. The description of Elizabeth's entrance into London, — her removal in compliance with antient custom to the Tower, — to that massy fortress now her palace, once her dungeon, which she had entered by the Traitor's gate, 'a terrified and defenceless prisoner,' — her passage from the Tower to Westminster, — the gorgeous pageantry of her coronation, — these processions and these shows are described in a picturesque and vivid manner; and, like objects in a *camera obscura*, to fidelity of colouring and representation are superadded life and motion.

The early flexibility of Elizabeth on religious matters might seem to border on indifference, and in certain minds would excite suspicion as to the soundness of her faith. On her accession to the throne, although both by education and by interest she was led to favour the Reformation, she was slow and cautious in restoring the Protestant church: but she prohibited the elevation of the Host in her presence, abolished mass, restored the liturgy, and confirmed all the statutes concerning religion which had been passed by her brother Edward VI. For the depredations which, throughout the whole of her reign, she committed on the ecclesiastical revenues, she found abundant precedents; and they possibly might not excite such dissatisfaction as her benevolent attempt to suppress, or to assuage, the violent attacks of Catholics and Reformers on each other. For political offences, even on suspicion of treasonable practices, arbitrary imprisonment and the rack were employed without compunction: but, both during her confinement in the Tower and after her liberation, she had not scrupled to ingratiate herself with the bigot Mary by an outward and visible conformity with the Catholic rites. The fierce reformer John Knox did not hesitate thus to speak of her: "The armes of England wer befor usurped by our Soverane and by her husband Francis; and Elizabethe, quene of England, was of the Guisianes reputed littill better than a bastard. The effect quhareof wil soner apeir then the godly of England wald desyre. And yet is sche that now reigneth over thame, neither gude Protestant nor yet resolute Papist — let the warld juge quilk is the *thrid*;" doubtless meaning to intimate that she was an unbeliever: an insinuation founded solely on the comparative spirit of religious toleration, which distinguished at least the early part of her government from the furious persecution that was let loose under the reign of Mary: a spirit which is offensive and suspicious to the bigots of all parties, who at all times love to tear one another to pieces — for the glory of God!

Miss Aikin will not allow that Elizabeth had more feeling or understanding of toleration, and the rights of conscience, than any prince or polemic of her age; though at the same time she remarks, somewhat inconsistently, 'that her establishment was formed throughout in the *spirit of compromise* and political expediency.' Mr. Hume has been more tender to her memory: Religion, says he, was the capital point on which depended all the political transactions of that age; and the Queen's conduct could scarcely be accused of severity or imprudence. She established no inquisition into a man's bosom; she imposed no oath of supremacy, except on those who received trust or employment from the public; and, although the exercise of every religion but the established was prohibited by statute, the violation of this law by saying mass and receiving the sacrament in private houses was overlooked; while the Catholics, at the beginning of her reign, shewed little reluctance against going to church. Pope Sixtus V., apprehensive that this practice would by degrees reconcile all his partizans to the reformed religion, published a bull of excommunication against the Queen, and made a donation of the kingdom to Philip of Spain. The Pope's emissaries endeavoured likewise to widen the breach between the two religions, as much as they could, and to make the frequenting of Protestant churches appear highly criminal to the Catholics. These efforts, with the rebellion that ensued, and subsequently the attempts made to assassinate the Queen, increased the vigilance and severity of her government. Yet the Romanists, if their condition were compared with that of the Non-conformists in other countries, and with their own maxims where they domineered, could not justly complain of persecution. Elizabeth kept a stricter rein over the Puritans, whom she feared as well as hated: knowing that the same bold and ardent spirit, which they evinced in their religious inquiries, was infused into their political speculations. Hence the dread of an ascendancy which was depressed for a time, only to exhibit itself triumphantly in a more convenient season. The Pope and his fanatic emissaries, however, did at length goad her to the absolute suppression of a religion which she had once practised herself, and was much inclined to tolerate, at least by connivance, in others. Accordingly, in the year 1584, a severe law was enacted against Jesuits and

Popish priests, ordering them to depart the kingdom within forty days, under the penalties of treason; and, in the latter part of her reign, the law, in all its horrors, was too often allowed to take its course. Still it had always at least the pretence of punishing treasonable practices: for Elizabeth, [see Rapin,] desirous of shewing that it was not for their religion merely that some Catholics had been visited with the vengeance of the law, sent for the Judges of the realm, and reproved them for the severity of the tortures which they had inflicted. In justification, they affirmed "that no person had been made to suffer for his religion, but only for dangerous practices against the Queen and state." That inquisitorial and iniquitous tribunal, the high court of commission, though denominated an ecclesiastical court, was too well calculated to support the supremacy of the crown in temporal as well as spiritual matters, not to be viewed with a complacent eye by so imperious a princess as Elizabeth. Her actual indifference on mere religious matters was exemplified on one remarkable occasion. When the United Provinces revolted against the barbarity and bigotry of Philip, envoys were sent to the English court, offering Elizabeth the sovereignty of them, on condition that she would defend them against the Spaniards, but she declined the offer:

'She reprobated, doubtless with great sincerity, the principle, that there were cases in which subjects might be justified in throwing off allegiance to their lawful prince; and protested that, for herself, nothing could ever tempt her to usurp upon the dominions either of her good brother of Spain or any other prince. Finally, she took upon her to advert to the religious scruples which had produced the revolt of the Hollanders, in a tone of levity which it is difficult to understand her motive for assuming: since it could not fail, from her lips especially, to give extreme scandal to the deputies and to all other serious men. She said, that it was unreasonable in the Dutch to have stirred up so great a commotion merely on account of the celebration of mass; and that so contumacious a resistance to their king could never redound to their honor, since they were not compelled to believe in the divinity of the mass, but only to be spectators of its performance,—as at a public spectacle. "What!" said she, "if I were to begin to act some scene in a dress like this," (for she was clad in white like a priest,) "should you regard it as a crime to behold it?" Was the queen here making the apology of her own compliances under the reign of her sister, or was she generously furnishing a salvo for others? In any case, the sentiment, as coming from the heroine of protestantism, is extraordinary.

'An ineffectual remonstrance, addressed by Elizabeth to the king of Spain, was the only immediate result of this attempt of the Provinces to engage her in their concerns. She kept a watchful eye, however, upon their great and glorious struggle; and the time at length came, when she found it expedient to unite more closely her interest with theirs.'

The very first parliament, which met after the Queen's accession, testified the anxiety which the nation felt for her marriage: an anxiety which continued during all the marriageable part of her life. Elizabeth, however, imitating perhaps the mummery of the Doge of Venice in marrying the Adriatic, would wed only her sea-girt kingdom. She had early made up her mind not to marry; whether, as Lady Shrewsbury and as Camden suggest, "*ob nescio quam muliebrem impotentiam*," or what were the private or personal reasons which deterred her, is a subject now of useless and idle conjecture.

"Concerning marriage," said she, "which ye so earnestly move me to, I have been long since perswaded that I was sent into this world by God to think and doe those things chiefly which may tend to his glory. Hereupon have I chosen that kind of life which is most free from the troublesome cares of this world, that I might attend the service of God alone. From which if either the tendred marriages of most potent princes, or the danger of death intended against me could have removed me, I had long ago enjoyed the honor of a husband. And these things have I thought upon when I was a private person; but now that the publick care of governing the kingdom is laid upon me, to draw upon me also the cares of marriage may seem a point of inconsiderate folly. Yet to satisfie you, I have already joyned myself in marriage to an husband, namely the kingdom of England. And herewith she drew the ring from her finger, and shewed it; wherewith at her coronation she had, in a set form of words, solemnly given herself in a marriage to the kingdom." Here, having made a pause; "and doe not," saith she, "upbraid me," &c. &c. "To me it shall be a full satisfaction both for the memoriall of my name and for my glory also, if when I shall let my last breath, it be ingraven upon my marble tomb, 'Here lieth Elizabeth, which reigneth a virgin and died a virgin.'" [*Camden.*]

The chastity of Cæsar's wife was not to be suspected: but the chastity of Elizabeth did not pass unsullied by the breath of slander or suspicion. The fairy Oberon might see what is invisible to the dull optics of an historian;

> "Flying between the cold moon and the earth,
> Cupid all armed: a certain aim he took
> At a fair vestal, throned by the west,
> And loosed his love-shaft smartly from his bow
> As it should pierce a hundred thousand hearts.
> But I might see young Cupid's fiery shaft
> Quenched in the chaste beams of the watery moon,
> And the imperial votress passed on
> In maiden meditation fancy-free."

Midsummer Night's Dream.

Whether all the gross imputations are to be credited against Elizabeth, the currency of which was communicated by Mary Queen of Scots on the authority of the Countess of Shrewsbury, we may doubt. Hume, who considers the letter of Mary in which these allegations are detailed as an act of revenge which gratified at once her spite against the Countess and against Elizabeth, nevertheless acknowleges that "her extreme fondness for Leicester, Hatton, and Essex, not to mention Mountjoy and others, with the curious passages between her and Admiral Seymour, contained in Haynes, render her chastity very much to be suspected." — Mary's letter is a curious document, and introduces us much into the scandalous rumours of the day. It might, as Mr. Hume suggests, have been written maliciously, for Mary could entertain no kindly feelings towards Elizabeth: but the very first sentence shews that the intelligence which it communicates, however shameful and humiliating, had been previously solicited from Mary by Elizabeth herself: "*Suivant ce que je vous ay promis* et auvez despuis desiré, *je vous declare ores qu' aveques regret,*" &c. &c. * Not only to the Duke of Anjou, but to his agent Simier, the utmost indulgences were alleged to have been conceded; and Sir Christopher Hatton, though no lawyer, was promoted to the high dignity of Chancellor for the elegance of his person and the gracefulness of his dancing. "Being young, and of a comely talness of body and amiable countenance, he got into such favor with the Queen, that she took him into her band of fifty gentleman pensioners, and afterwards, for his modest sweetness of conditions, into the number of the gentlemen of her privy-chamber; made him captain of her guard, vice-chamberlain, and one of her privy-council; and lastly made him lord-chancellor." [Camden.] — Gray humorously alludes to this dancing luminary of the law, and to his enjoyment of the smiles and favours of Elizabeth, in his "Long Story:"

"Full oft within these spacious walls, †
When he had fifty winters o'er him,
My grave *Lord-Keeper* led the brawls;
The seals and maces danced before him.

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* Mr. Hume gave a meagre abstract of this letter in a note: Dr. Stuart published the original entire: Whitaker, in addition to the original, supplied a literal translation: Miss Aikin, for very sufficient reasons, omits the whole.

† Of the mansion-house at Stoke-Pogeis, which once belonged to the Earls of Huntingdon and the family of Hatton.

His bushy beard and shoe-strings green,
His high-crown'd hat and satin doublet,
Moved the stout heart of England's Queen,
Though Pope and Spaniard could not trouble it."

Without making farther mention of the personal favourites of Elizabeth, who were very numerous, it should be remarked that a most singular and unusual phraseology, to say the least of it, is adopted in a law enacted in 1571 (13 El. c. 1. sect. 2.). making it treason to maintain in writing, or printing, "that any person *except the natural issue of her body* is, or ought to be, the Queen's heir or successor." It is amusing, and not destitute of advantage, sometimes to notice the different commentaries which different authors make on the same fact, according to their prejudices or opinions. Mr. Hume, who was a most candid man, says that the usual phrase of *lawful issue* "the Parliament thought indecent towards the Queen, as if she could be supposed to have any other; accordingly they changed it to natural issue." Camden remarks "that the alteration was the source of abundant pleasantry; and that, being then a young man himself, he often heard people say that the word *natural* was inserted into the act by Leicester, with a design, one time or other, to impose some bastard-son of his upon the English for the Queen's natural issue." Whitaker, a mere partizan of Mary, and unrestrained by candour, says, with his wonted coarseness, that "the existence of such a law as this upon our statute-book is a full proof of the effrontery of Elizabeth in vice, and of the obsequiousness of the nation in meanness; and the law itself stands as a strong note of infamy upon both." The term was certainly ill chosen: the word *issue* alone would have equally comprehended her spurious and her legitimate offspring: but, in the legal acceptation of the term *natural issue*, it peculiarly defines the former *only*, and would even have excluded the latter in their favour; — a most preposterous supposition. The word *natural*, however, was probably selected, and not used carelessly or accidentally: for in the treaty which was made in *the year before*, between Elizabeth and Mary Queen of Scots, who was at that time her prisoner, it was specified that the latter should succeed to the throne "in case of Elizabeth's demise without *any* issue." Mary altered the limitation thus, "without any *lawful* issue:" but Elizabeth objected, and would only agree to have it altered thus: "without issue by any lawful husband." — [Haynes, 608. 614.] Whitaker, who is never at a loss for some uncharitable motive when the English Queen is concerned, observes: "This remarkable fact, which was prior to the law, shews us, in union with it, the firmness of audacity with which she pursued her purposes upon the succession. She tried at first to make way for *any* issue. She then adhered resolutely to any *by a lawful husband*, because she could cure the bastardy by a marriage!! And she at last spoke out even to her parliament, and had her *natural issue* by name rendered capable of succeeding her."

Elizabeth had as many suitors as Penelope herself; and, notwithstanding these calumnious aspersions, (if they be such,) or these injurious inferences and suspicions as to her character, she may *possibly* have had all that celebrated lady's chastity, and certainly had more than all her worldly prudence. Both the dames encouraged their ardent lovers with the hope of possession when their own endless tasks were finished, but each unravelled by night the web which she had woven by day; yet, while the incautious spouse of Ulysses suffered his property to be wasted among them in every species of luxury, extravagance, and riot, the thriftier Queen of England, according to the custom of the times, avoided the expence of entertaining her many princely wooers, by distributing the costly honour among her squires and knights, bishops and barons, marquises and dukes. Not contented even with thus billeting her guests, it has also been surmised, says Miss Aikin, that she was not inattentive to the savings occasioned to her privy-purse by maintaining her household for several weeks in every year, during her *Progresses*, at the expence of the nobles, or of the towns through which she passed; and it must be admitted that more than one disgraceful instance might be pointed out, of a great man being obliged to purchase the continuance or the restoration of her favour by soliciting the almost ruinous honour of a royal visit. The court of Elizabeth was celebrated for its magnificence: her band of gentlemen-pensioners was entirely composed of the flower of the nobility; and, during the whole of her reign, to serve in its ranks was considered as a distinction worth the ambition of young men of the highest qualities and most brilliant prospects. On this point of her policy, Miss Aikin makes a remark, like many others interspersed through these Memoirs, indicative of her own sagacity and good sense; viz. that, however it might strengthen the personal influence of the sovereign to enroll, among the menial servants of the crown, gentlemen of influence and property, it is chiefly perhaps to this practice that we ought to impute that baseness of servility which infected, with scarcely one honourable exception, the public characters of the reign of Elizabeth.

'The ceremonial of her court rivalled the servility of the east: no person of whatever rank ventured to address her otherwise than kneeling; and this attitude was preserved by all her ministers during their audiences of business, with the exception of Burleigh, in whose favour, when aged and infirm, she dispensed with its observance. Hentzner, a German traveller who visited England near the conclusion of her reign, relates, that as she passed through several apartments from the chapel to dinner, wherever she turned her eyes he observed the spectators throw themselves on their knees. The same traveller further relates, that the officers and ladies whose business it was to arrange the dishes and give tastes of them to the yeomen of the guard by whom they were brought in, did not presume to approach the royal table, without repeated prostrations and genuflexions, and every mark of reverence due to her majesty in person.'

We cannot afford room for many extracts from these amusing volumes: but the reader who has had patience to accompany us thus far deserves to be rewarded with an anecdote or two.

'Sir Henry Lee was one of the finest courtiers and certainly the most complete knight-errant of his time. He was now in the fortieth year of his age, had travelled, and had seen some military service; but the tilt-yard was ever the scene of his most conspicuous exploits and those in which he placed his highest glory. He had declared himself the queen's own knight and champion, and having inscribed upon his shield the constellation of Ariadne's crown, culminant in her Majesty's nativity, bound himself by a solemn vow to appear armed in the tilt-yard on every anniversary of her happy accession till disabled by age. This vow gave origin to the annual exercises of the Knights-Tilters, a society consisting of twenty-five of the most gallant and favored of the courtiers of Elizabeth. The modern reader may wonder to find included in this number so grave an officer as Bromley lord chancellor; but under the maiden reign neither the deepest statesman, the most studious lawyer, nor the rudest soldier was exempted from the humiliating obligation of accepting, and even soliciting, those household and menial offices usually discharged by mere courtiers, nor from the irksome one of assuming, for the sake of their sovereign lady, the romantic disguise of armed champions and enamoured knights. Sir Henry Lee, however, appears to have devoted his life to these chivalrous pageantries rather from a quixotical imagination than with any serious views of ambition or interest. He was a gentleman of ancient family and plentiful fortune, little connected, as far as appears, with any court faction or political party, and neither capable nor ambitious of any public station of importance. It is an amiable and generous trait of his character, that he attended the unfortunate Duke of Norfolk even to the scaffold, received his last embrace, and repeated to the assembled multitude his request that they would assist him with their prayers in his final agony. His royal dulcinea rewarded his fatigues and his adoration by the lieutenancy of Woodstock manor, the office of keeper of the armoury, and especially by the appropriate meed of admission into the most noble order of the Garter. He resigned the championship at the approach of old age with a solemn ceremony hereafter to be described, died at his mansion of Quarendon in Bucks, in 1611, in his 81st year, and was interred in the parish church under a splendid tomb hung round with military trophies, and inscribed with a very long, very quaint and very tumid epitaph.'—

'In the year 1589, the customary festivities on the anniversary of her Majesty's accession were attended by one of those romantic ceremonies which mark so well the taste of the age and of Elizabeth. This was no other than the formal resignation by that veteran of the tilt-yard, Sir Henry Lee, of the office of Queen's champion, so long his glory and delight. The gallant Earl of Cumberland was his destined successor, and the momentous transfer was accomplished after the following fashion.

'Having first performed their respective parts in the chivalrous exercises of the band of Knights-tilters, Sir Henry and the Earl presented themselves to her Majesty at the foot of the gallery where she was seated, surrounded by her ladies and nobles, to view the games. They advanced to slow music, and a concealed performer accompanied the strain with the following song:

'My golden locks time hath to silver turn'd,
(Oh time too swift, and swiftness never ceasing)
My youth 'gainst age, and age at youth hath spurn'd:
But spurn'd in vain, youth waneth by increasing,
Beauty, strength, and youth, flowers fading been,
Duty, faith, and love, are roots and evergreen.

'My helmet now shall make a hive for bees,
And lovers' songs shall turn to holy psalms;
A man at arms must now sit on his knees,
And feed on pray'rs that are old age's alms.
And so from court to cottage I depart;
My saint is sure of mine unspotted heart.

'And when I sadly sit in homely cell,
I'll teach my swains this carrol for a song:
"Blest be the hearts that think my sovereign well,
Curs'd be the souls that think to do her wrong."
Goddess, vouchsafe this aged man his right,
To be your beadsman now, that was your knight.

'During this performance, there arose out of the earth a pavilion of white taffeta, supported on pillars resembling porphyry, and formed to imitate the temple of the Vestal virgins. A superb altar was placed within it, on which were laid some rich gifts for her Majesty. Before the gate stood a crowned pillar embraced by an eglantine, to which a votive tablet was attached, inscribed "To Elizabeth." The gifts and the tablet being with great reverence delivered to the Queen, and the aged knight in the meantime disarmed, he offered up his armour at the foot of the pillar; then kneeling, presented the Earl of Cumberland to her Majesty, praying her to be pleased to accept of him for her knight, and to continue these annual exercises. The proposal being graciously accepted, Sir Henry armed the Earl and mounted him on his horse: this done, he clothed himself in a long velvet gown and covered his head, in lieu of a helmet, with "a buttoned cap of the country fashion."'

Elizabeth is said to have been laudably watchful over the morals of her court; and, not satisfied with dismissing from her service or banishing from her presence such female attendants as were found offending against the laws of chastity, she likewise discouraged the libertinism of the other sex, and often deferred the promotion of young men till she saw them reform their manners in this respect. Europe, consequently, never before witnessed a court so decorous, so learned, or so accomplished. It is remarkable, however, that this vigilant guardian of the decencies and proprieties of life was hostile to marriage, and treated the ceremony itself with contempt. On individuals of her court, who had married without her knowlege and consent, particularly if they had the remotest consanguinity with herself, she very frequently, and indeed as a matter of course, inflicted the most severe and arbitrary vengeance; such as imprisonment in the Tower for years, nullifying the marriage, and bastardizing the progeny. In a *Progress* in the year 1561, she expressed high displeasure at finding so many of the clergy married, and the cathedrals and colleges filled with women and children; and she addressed to the Archbishop, Parker, an injunction that no head or member of any college or cathedral should bring a wife, or any other woman, into the precincts of it, to abide in the same, on pain of forfeiture of all ecclesiastical promotion. When Parker remonstrated against so popish a prohibition, she declared that she repented of having made any married bishops, and treated the institution of matrimony itself with a satire and contempt which filled him with horror. The following anecdote, told by Sir John Harrington, in his *Nugæ*, is worthy of an envious old maid who concentrated the venom and spite of a demon:

> 'She did oft ask the ladies around her chamber, if they loved to think of marriage? And the wise ones did conceal well their liking hereto, as knowing the Queen's judgement in this matter. Sir Matthew Arundel's fair cousin, not knowing so deeply as her fellows, was asked one day hereof, and simply said, she had thought much about marriage, if her father did consent to the man she loved. "You seem honest, i'faith," said the Queen; "I will sue for you to your father." The damsel was not displeased

hereat; and when Sir Robert came to court, the Queen asked him hereon, and pressed his consenting, if the match was discreet. Sir Robert, much astonied at this news, said he never heard his daughter had liking to any man, and wanted to gain knowledge of her affection; but would give free consent to what was most pleasing to her Highness' will and advice. "Then I will do the rest," saith the Queen. The lady was called in, and the Queen told her that her father had given his free consent. "Then," replied the lady, "I shall be happy, and please your Grace." "So thou shalt, but not to be a fool and marry; I have his consent given to me, and I vow thou shalt never get it into thy possession. So go to thy business, I see thou art a bold one to own thy foolishness so readily."'

Elizabeth was an adept in all the petty arts of duplicity and dissimulation; and, when Mary took refuge in England after her defeat by the Regent Murray, this "Virgin Queen" would not permit the guilty fugitive to approach her presence: alleging that, as she stood charged by the public voice with the murder of her husband, she must first exculpate herself from the atrocious crime. At this very moment, however, Elizabeth was lavishing her favours on one of the most profligate and vicious characters in her dominions; a man who was steeped to the core in crime, and polluted with the strongest suspicion of having committed not one but many secret murders, and among them that of his wife, — Dudley, the infamous Earl of Leicester. Her close connection, too, with as execrable a fiend as ever disgraced the female form, Catherine de Medici, and the repeated overtures of marriage to which she lent a listening ear from Catherine's son, the Duke of Anjou, are proofs that the prudish morals of the Queen were very subordinate to her views of policy. Is farther evidence required? Elizabeth herself, after having tormented her captive rival, Mary, through a lingering series of years, endeavoured to evade the odium and responsibility of a public execution by employing the dagger or the drug of an assassin. From Secretary Davison's "Apology," it appears that this project was intimated to him by the Queen herself, "who fell into some complaint of Sir Amias Paulet"— in whose custody Mary then was at Fotheringay— "that might *have eased her of her burden;* wishing me yet to deal with Mr. Secretary [Walsingham], and that we would jointly write unto Sir Amias and Sir Drue Drury to sound their dispositions. Aiming still at this, that it might be so done as the blame might be removed from herself." Davison disliked the job, but had still the baseness to promise his mistress that, in conjunction with Walsingham, he would communicate as secretly as possible the pleasure of her Majesty. The original of this joint letter, dated London, Feb. 1. 1586, was found among Sir A. Paulet's papers, endorsed by himself, stating that it was "received at Fotheringay on the second at five in the afternoon." If that letter be a monument of infamy to Elizabeth and Walsingham, the instant and immediate reply of Paulet should have been engraven on his tomb-stone in memorial of his honour and virtue. Miss Aikin has only alluded to it: but the original is worthy of insertion:

"*To Sir Francis Walsingham.*

"SIR,—Your letters of yesterday coming to my hands this present day at five in the afternoon, I would not fail, according to your direction, to return my answer with all possible speed; which I shall deliver unto you with great grief and bitterness of mind, in that I am so unhappy to have liven to see this unhappy day, in which I am required, by direction from my most Gracious Sovereign, to do an act which God and the law forbiddeth. My goods, livings, and life are at her Majesty's disposition, and I am ready to lose them this next morrow, if it shall so please her; acknowledging that I hold them as of her mere and most gracious favour, and do not desire to enjoy them but with her Highness's good liking. But God forbid that I should make so foul a shipwreck of my conscience, or leave so great a blot to my poor posterity, to shed blood without law and warrant; trusting that her Majesty, of her accustomed clemency, and the rather by your good mediation, will take this my dutiful answer, as proceeding from one who will never be inferior to any Christian subject living in duty, honour, love, and obedience towards his Sovereign. And thus I commit you to the mercy of the Almighty. Your most assured poor friend,

"*From Fotheringay,* "A. PAULET."
2d of February, 1586."

Sir Drue Drury, in a postscript to the above, because he was not personally addressed, "forbeareth to make any particular answer, but subscribeth in heart" to the same opinion and determination.

As Elizabeth was not able to get rid of Mary by assassination, an order for her execution was at length signed by herself, and sealed with her own signet, commanding Davison to draw a warrant under the great seal for that purpose: 'but she enjoined him withal to keep the warrant by him, and acquaint no man therewith.' It was necessary, however, to preserve appearances, and to appease James: for which purpose it was requisite to sacrifice Davison; who was accordingly summoned, after the execution of Mary, to appear before the Star-chamber for having contemned the Queen's orders, &c., and was sentenced to be fined ten thousand pounds and be imprisoned during the Queen's pleasure. It was during his imprisonment that he wrote his "Apology," and sent it to Walsingham; and in this apology he narrates a conversation between himself and the Queen, in which the latter blamed Paulet and Drury, whom she called "dainty and precise fellows, who would promise much but perform nothing," because they "had not *eased her of her burden*; and wished that Walsingham would feel their pulses touching this matter." To carry on this hypocritical and infamous farce still farther, Elizabeth, on hearing the *unexpected* news of Mary's death, immediately wrote a loving letter to James of Scotland, protesting her innocence of the transaction, and expressing in the warmest terms her friendship and regard for him. The letter began thus:

> "My Dear Brother, — I would you knew, though not felt the extreme dolour that overwhelmeth my mind for that miserable *accident* which *farre contrary to my meaning* hath befalne. I have sent this kindsman of mine whom ere now it hath pleased you to favour, to instruct you truly of that which is too irksome for my pen to tell you. I beseech you, that as many know how innocent I am in this case, so you will believe me that if I had done it I would have abode by it; I am not so base-minded, that the fear of any living creature should make me afraid to do what is just, or done to deny the same," &c. &c.

This letter was sent, a few days after the execution, by her kinsman, Robert Carey. If Elizabeth had not expressed such horror at the murder of Darnley *by Mary*, — for the castle of innocence, constructed with so much ingenuity and labour by Whitaker, has been levelled to the ground by Malcolm Laing, — she might perhaps have pleaded, in arrest of judgment, the manners of the age: for assassination, during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, was not regarded with the same detestation which is annexed to it in modern times, and it prevailed to an incredible degree all over Europe, particularly in Scotland, Italy, and France. It was likewise so common in England during the reign of Elizabeth, that in the inventory of jewels and valuables left by the old dowager Duchess of Somerset, "two pieces of unicorn's horn" are enumerated, which was an article highly valued in that day, from its supposed efficacy as an antidote or a test in cases of poison. In the early part of the fifteenth century, the only brother of the King of France was murdered publicly in the streets of Paris; and, instead of this horrible transaction being punished, an eminent advocate was allowed to plead in defence of it before the peers of France, and avowedly to maintain the lawfulness of assassination. If Buchanan can relate the murders of Cardinal Beaton and David Rizzio without expressing any feelings of abhorrence, it is not surprizing that the fierce Knox should speak of the death of Beaton and the Duke of Guise with positive exultation. The Bishop of Ross mentions the assassination of the Earl of Murray with some degree of applause; and Blackwood dwells on it with the most indecent triumph, ascribing it to the hand of God. Lord Ruthven, also, the principal actor in the conspiracy against Rizzio, wrote a long account of it himself, without one solitary expression of regret, or one symptom of compunction for the part which he had taken in the murder. Morton, likewise, who was equally guilty, talks in his last moments as coolly of "David's slaughter," as if it had been an innocent and commendable deed.* In estimating the moral guilt of an atrocious act, the manners and ideas of the age should in fairness be taken into consideration: but, for the reason before stated, Elizabeth is not intitled to avail herself of this consideration in the present instance.

It is time, however, that we should bring this article to its end, and resist the many temptations to extend it which Miss Aikin has spread before us. We cannot close it better than with the following extract:

'That a profound melancholy was either the cause, or at least a leading symptom, of the last illness of the Queen, so many concurring testimonies render indisputable; but the origin of this affection has been variously explained. Some, as we have seen, ascribed it to her chagrin on being in a manner compelled to grant the pardon of Tyrone;—a cause disproportioned surely to the effect. Others have imagined it to arise from grief and indignation at the neglect which she began to experience from the venal throng of courtiers, who were hastening to pay timely homage to her successor. By others, again, her dejection has been regarded as nothing more than a natural concomitant of bodily decay; a physical rather than a mental malady. But the prevalent opinion, even at the time, appears to have been, that the grief or compunction for the death of Essex, with which she had long maintained a secret struggle, broke forth in the end superior to control, and rapidly completed the overthrow of powers which the advances of old age and an accumulation of cares and anxieties had already undermined. "Our Queen," writes an English correspondent to a Scotch nobleman in the service of James, "is troubled with a rheum in her arm, which vexeth her very much, besides the grief she hath conceived for my Lord of Essex's death. She sleepeth not so much by day as she used, neither taketh rest by night. Her delight is to sit in the dark, and sometimes, with shedding tears, to bewail Essex."

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* These instances, with references for their authority, are taken from Robertson's Hist. of Scotland, b. iv.

'A remarkable anecdote first published in Osborn's Traditional Memoirs of Queen Elizabeth, and confirmed by M. Maurier's Memoirs,—where it is given on the authority of Sir Dudley Carleton, the English ambassador in Holland, who related it to Prince Maurice,—offers the solution of these doubts. According to this story, the Countess of Nottingham, who was a relation, but no friend, of the Earl of Essex, being on her death-bed, entreated to see the Queen; declaring that she had something to confess to her before she could die in peace. On her Majesty's arrival, the Countess produced a ring, which she said the Earl of Essex had sent to her after his condemnation, with an earnest request that she would deliver it to the Queen, as the token by which he implored her mercy; but which, in obedience to her husband, to whom she had communicated the circumstance, she had hitherto withheld; for which she entreated the Queen's forgiveness. On sight of the ring, Elizabeth instantly recognised it as one which she had herself presented to her unhappy favourite on his departure for Cadiz, with the tender promise, that of whatsoever crimes his enemies might have accused him, or whatsoever offences he might actually have committed against her, on his returning to her that pledge, she would either pardon him, or admit him at least to justify himself in her presence. Transported at once with grief and rage, on learning the barbarous infidelity of which the Earl had been the victim and herself the dupe, the Queen shook in her bed the dying Countess, and vehemently exclaiming, that God might forgive her, but she never could, flung out of the chamber.

'Returning to her palace, she surrendered herself without resistance to the despair which seized her heart on this fatal and too late disclosure.—Hence her refusal of medicine and almost of food;—hence her obstinate silence, interrupted only by sighs, groans, and broken hints of a deep sorrow which she cared not to reveal;—hence the days and nights passed by her seated on the floor, sleepless, her eyes fixed and her finger pressed upon her mouth;—hence, in short, all those heart-rending symptoms of incurable and mortal anguish which conducted her, in the space of twenty days, to the lamentable termination of a long life of power, prosperity, and glory.

'The Queen expired on March 24th, 1603.'

The last of the Tudors did not degenerate from her ancestry, nor suffer the royal prerogative to lie in abeyance. In the great political drama of her reign, less blood was shed on the stage than in that of her father Henry or her sister Mary: but Elizabeth exercised perhaps a more despotic sway over her parliaments than either. Strickland, Yelverton, Wentworth, and a few others, shone with a lustre which was made more resplendent by the darkness which surrounded them. Though misguided by a wretched taste, Elizabeth was a learned woman, and wrote and translated several books. She had the ambition, indeed, of appearing as an author; and, unhappily for literature, as Mr. Hume observes, or at least for the learned of this age, her vanity lay more in shining by her own acquirements than in encouraging men of genius by her liberality. Spenser himself, the finest English writer of his time, was long neglected; and after the death of Sir Philip Sidney, his patron, he was allowed almost to die through want. He had an annuity of fifty pounds as Poet-Laureate to her Majesty; which, after the plunder of his house and destruction of his property by the Irish rebels, formed apparently all the means of his subsistence: but *economy* was a cardinal virtue with Elizabeth. Though she was lavish enough to a few personal favorites, her general habits of saving protected the people from much oppressive and unnecessary taxation; while, on emergencies, they enabled her to assist her allies, and on all occasions to call forth with promptitude the energies of the nation in its own defence. Her reign was splendid abroad, but was severe, despotic, and tyrannical at home: the streams of justice flowed through impure channels, and the fountain itself was polluted. Her ministers had not even the decent affectation of reluctance in receiving bribes from parties who were engaged in law-proceedings, for the exertion of the Queen's influence with the judges; and we have yet in existence some of her own warrants for exempting particular persons from all law-suits and prosecutions: warrants granted by her royal prerogative, and which she would not allow to be disputed by any subject in the realm.

Art. II. *Observations on the State of Ireland,* principally directed to its Agriculture and Rural Population; in a Series of Letters, written on a Tour through that Country. By J. C. Curwen, Esq. M. P. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

Deficient as may be our present knowlege with regard to Ireland, the state of its peasantry and agriculture, its relative strength and importance as an integral part of the British empire, &c., we are largely indebted for that portion which we actually possess, first perhaps, and in an especial degree, to the frequent and almost annual debates in parliament on the Catholic question: where, in the conflict of argument, much valuable information has been brought before the public by members on both sides of the House, in support of their respective opinions on that subject. — Secondly, we are indebted to a few writers, who, by publishing the result of their inquiries within the last ten or twelve years, have redeemed us from much of the ignorance which before prevailed on this side of the Irish Channel. The statistical works of Newenham, Plowden, Wakefield, and Parnel, are pregnant with important facts; and the national character has been illustrated with admirable felicity in the various tales and novels of Miss Edgeworth.

We cannot regret the short disengagement of Mr. Curwen from parliamentary duties, a few years ago, since it has been the occasion of furnishing us with one of the most valuable publications which has appeared for some time on this very interesting subject: but we could not read without pain the first paragraph, on reflecting that it was written by a man who has passed the whole of his life in one uniform tenour of public and private beneficence. 'While I look to the future (says Mr. C.) for recompence in the tranquil enjoyment of home, the past cannot be regarded without lamenting the time, the unavailing mortifications, and unprofitable expence, which have been attendant on eight-and-twenty years of public life. Led on by self-delusion, and the hope of doing good, like many others, I estimated my labours by what I conceived them to be worth, not by the appreciation of others. In retiring from the task of sedulously discharging my duty in attending to the conduct of national concerns, it is no small consolation to escape even the imputation of having participated in the corruptions of the times; and to feel conscious of not having contributed to the adoption of those measures which for so many years have inundated Europe with torrents of affliction and oceans of blood.' Let not Mr. Curwen regret his honest patriotic efforts, nor consider them as unavailing in the public cause. Aristides was banished from Athens because he was pre-eminently just: but the Athenians, ashamed of the injury which they had committed, recalled him, and made the sincere though tardy atonement of protecting his family; and his name has descended to us in honourable memorial of his virtues. Leonidas, with his little band of heroes, perished at Thermopylæ: but his valour was not lost to Greece, and the memory of the hero is immortal. Mr. Curwen is an agriculturist: and the seed which he deposits in the Autumn, or in the Spring, is not returned to him till the following Summer: — a longer period of maturation is requisite for those moral and political principles of equity and freedom, which he and others are sowing in the minds of men: — but their labour is not thrown away: the seed *has germinated*, and the harvest will in due time be reaped.

It was in the middle of August 1813, that Mr. Curwen sailed from Port Patrick to Donaghadee, having skirted the south-western part of Scotland in his journey from Cumberland; noticing with admiration the agricultural improvments which Mr. Boyd has introduced in his domains. Isaac Walton was not a greater enthusiast in angling than Mr. Curwen is in farming; and certainly, as a mere amusement, the latter is by much the more rational: leaving behind it no self-reproach at the infliction of cruelty on any creature, but on the contrary gratifying those who are engaged in it with a belief that, while they are furnishing subsistence to man, they are affording protection and comfort to the numerous animals which it is their interest to rear and to employ.

A farm of a hundred acres in the neighbourhood of Bangor, it seems, is an extraordinary undertaking: about thirty being the usual number in the occupation of one individual, of which a small part is sub-let to cotters, one or more of whom are attached to every farm. 'Such a system (says Mr. C.) has the effect of augmenting the population *to a ruinous extent*, while the subdivision of land into such patches is an effectual bar to any material improvement in the husbandry of the country. — It would be out of place, here, to discuss the question of preference as to large or small farms; and perhaps, indeed, the discussion is nearly as wise as if we were to inquire whether it would be for the advantage of society that we should build nothing but large or nothing but small houses — all palaces or all cottages. Accommodations of appropriate and corresponding magnitude, both as to farms and houses, must always be provided. Capital is as necessary as skill to ensure the greatest possible produce from the soil; he, therefore, who may possess enough to cultivate thirty or forty acres with great advantage to himself and the community, may become bankrupt on a hundred. We like not the term *ruinous*, applied to an intense population of small occupiers, even of cotters, while the very intensity is indicative of a system of husbandry not to be despised. Why do we tax the fertility of the earth but to obtain food for human beings? In 1641, Sir William Petty estimated the population of Ireland at no more than 300,000 inhabitants: it now contains between five and six millions! * — yet Mr. Curwen says, speaking of the Irish cabins,

'These mansions of miserable existence, for so they may truly be described, conformably to our general estimation of those in-

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[*] Mr. Newenham, in his Statistical and Historical Enquiry into the Progress and Magnitude of the Population of Ireland, estimated the actual population in 1804 at 5,400,000. He likewise considered that four-fifths of the people are supported, chiefly, by the potatoe, on land cultivated by themselves.

dispensable comforts requisite to constitute the happiness of rational beings, are most commonly composed of two rooms on the ground floor, a most appropriate term, for they are literally on the earth; the surface of which is not unfrequently reduced a foot or more, to save the expense of so much outward walling. The one is a refectory, the other the dormitory. The furniture of the former, if the owner ranks in the upper part of the scale of scantiness, will consist of a kitchen dresser, well provided and highly decorated with crockery — not less apparently the pride of the husband, than the result of female vanity in the wife; which, with a table — a chest — a few stools — and an iron pot, complete the catalogue of conveniences generally found, as belonging to the cabin; while a spinning-wheel, furnished by the Linen Board, and a loom, ornament vacant spaces, that otherwise would remain unfurnished. In fitting up the latter, which cannot, on any occasion, or by any display, add a feather to the weight or importance expected to be excited by the appearance of the former, the inventory is limited to one, and sometimes two beds, serving for the repose of the whole family! However downy these may be to limbs impatient for rest, their coverings appeared to be very slight, and the whole of the apartment created reflections of a very painful nature. Under such privations, with a wet mud floor, and a roof in tatters, how idle the search for comforts!'

> " Nature, a mother kind alike to all,
> Still grants her bliss at Labour's earnest call;
> With food as well the peasant is supplied
> On Idra's cliff as Arno's shelvy side;
> And though the rocky-crested summits frown,
> These rocks, by custom, turn to beds of down."

Mr. Curwen, notwithstanding, acknówleges that the uniform hilarity and vivacity of the peasantry, in defiance of their apparent distress, indicate contentment and a perfectly easy mind: 'the sufferings from hunger are neither felt nor dreaded; nor can the dainties of the opulent epicure, partaken with equivocal hunger, be compared with the Irishman's potatoe and his honest appetite.' The best situation for a cabin is by the side of a highway adjoining a bog, which furnishes to the cotter both food and fuel; and the consequence is that, for miles together, these cabins extend along the road when contiguous to a bog. By the increasing industry of the cotters, Mr. Curwen entertains little doubt that, in process of time, the whole may be reclaimed; and, being an alarmist on this point, he says, that it is difficult to conjecture what will become of so redundant a population. 'Ireland appears to me as exhibiting a strong resemblance to the rude northern nations, and a hasty approximation to the state of them previous to the bursting forth of their people, and overwhelming the more southern parts of Europe. —

'Were a million of the inhabitants to emigrate at this day, this number, though great, would scarcely make a perceptible void in Ireland.' Probably not: the vacuum would, without doubt, very soon be supplied. Where room, that is to say food, can be found for more people, they will speedily arise; on which account, the human species no where multiplies so fast as in new settlements, where, the provision for a family being easy, every man will have a family around him. With respect to the rude northern nations of antiquity, it will scarcely admit of a doubt that the statements of their populousness have been greatly exaggerated. A pastoral nation, like the antient Scythians, cannot be populous; and from a country like Ireland, in which agriculture, manufactures, commerce, science, and the arts, are cultivated to a certain extent, the stream of emigration is not likely to flow in a very rapid current.

Mr. C. gives an interesting account of the Moravian village at Grace-hill, containing about 400 persons of both sexes, of which we inserted a description from Mrs. Plumtre's work, in our last volume, p. 134. (No. for June). — At all events, *this* is not a picture of human misery. In the benevolence and philanthropy of his nature, the author is very likely to have fixed too high in his own mind an imaginary standard of human happiness, below which he can scarcely believe existence to be desirable. It may be true that our highest enjoyments are derived from the gratification of previous wants; and, as the artificial wants of man are infinitely more numerous than the natural demands, so it will follow that our enjoyments, that is to say, our gratifications, will increase as we ascend in the scale of civilization: — but we are much disposed to think that existence alone is a blessing. At any rate, where the social and domestic affections glow with such ardour among the Irish, and where the reciprocal endearments of husband and wife, parents and progeny, are so strongly felt as they certainly are by the poor tenants of the Irish cabin, life has many charms, notwithstanding the absence of those things which, to persons in a much higher state of civilization, would be deemed requisite to their comfort. Mr. Curwen, however, must be allowed to state his own case in his own words:

> 'A very extraordinary state of indifference, even to their own interest, seems to pervade the proprietors of these vast tracts of bog, all of which would probably remain *in statu quo*, were it not for the overwhelming torrents of population which are forced over them, who, like drowning men, seize the sod and venerate the soil that saves their lives. It is the stimulus of dire necessity,

not the encouragement of competent neighbours, that alone gives the impulse to this description of improvement.

'On the first view of the possibility that so extended a cultivation may be effected, in a country abounding with the means, and where by far the greater proportion of the people are glad to drag on a daily existence merely to labour — and labour merely to exist! — to feel the toils of to-day must be the task of to-morrow — the mind becomes delighted with the animating hope, that the time is not far distant, when by these rural efforts all shall reap the comforts which constant employment to so glorious an end will furnish. Want of active employment, or in other words, apathy and idleness, engender discontent; discontent, disorder and general distress. Gratifying as such an anticipation of good may be, yet reflection drops into the scale her ponderous weight, against the value of the theory suspended in the other, and shows that agriculture alone, unassisted by manufactures and commerce, is incapable of producing all the promised benefits. The labour of one individual in husbandry will provide food for six: hence it is evident that a limited number of the people can only thus be advantageously employed on the soil; and resort must be had, and surely not unavailingly, to the proprietors of the land — the capitalists in stock — to devise the means of giving fit and profitable employment to that portion of the community not required for agricultural purposes, by the introduction of manufacturing establishments, and the extension of commercial pursuits.

'Without such auxiliary modes of engaging the national industry, an extension of the present system only would be delusory, and become the source of more widely-diffused streams of misery all over the country, by giving facilities and affording encouragement to augment the present superabundant population, which is not likely to be restrained but by the expedients of trade and manufactures. These would soon operate as a check to a further increase of the people, by introducing artificial wants among them in food — in dress — in habitation — and the acquirement of those comforts, to which, as human, rational beings, they must be considered as entitled: but, while the potatoe alone shall continue to be the food of the great bulk of the people, I see no reason to doubt their present number will be doubled in thirty years, and consequently the wretchedness of the country proportionably increased.'

Yet, a very few pages afterward, he says,

'The English traveller imbibes a most unfavourable opinion of Ireland, from the wretched state in which he beholds the habitations of the lower orders; the generality of which certainly appear unsuitable to the residence of human creatures. From the dilapidations without, he draws instant conclusions of accumulated miseries within. The Irish peasant, however, though poor in what the world calls riches, possesses that in his cabin which the mines of Peru could not furnish. Let the feelings be restrained — let a dispassionate survey of the interior be taken, and the traveller will find in the possession of its inhabitants a warmth of heart—an overflowing of the kindest domestic affections, and of the purest joys of life: while he acknowledges that such sensibilities do honour to his species, he must become persuaded that man may yet be happy, though under privations of what in our ideas is essential even to the continuance of our existence.

'When the threatening cloud affords the peasant on the bog an excuse to avail himself of such shelter as his cabin can afford, that is the moment in which the inside of it should be viewed. The joy with which he is received by all, evinces the kindness of the husband and father—the affection of his family; and while the elder children crowd round to embrace his knees, the younger ones extort the mother's help for blessings from his lips.'

We should certainly rejoice that larger capitals were employed in manufacturing establishments, and that greater encouragement were given to commercial pursuits, because the gratification of artificial wants is the multiplication of real enjoyments. Mr. Newenham, like Mr. Curwen, is startled at the prodigious increase of population produced by the potatoe. The former calculated that, in the year 1837, the population of Ireland will approximate to eight millions and a half, assuming that the increase will proceed as it has done: but Mr. Curwen far outstrips him, for he sees 'no reason to doubt their present number will be doubled in thirty years,' provided that the potatoe is the chief food of the people. Surely the probability is that some moral restraint will impede such an accelerated increase of population as *we* should be disposed to call excessive and 'ruinous.' Mr. C. observes that the competitors for cabins are numerous, and the rents consequently very high; being regulated not by the worth of the tenement but the wants of the parties. Does he not pecrceive that, in this incidental remark, he has pointed to one of those circumstances that will act as a mild but powerful corrective of the evil which he anticipates? Emigration is a temporary expedient: were half the Irish to emigrate, the present rapid rate of increase would only be the more accelerated, and soon supply the chasm. If they now marry young, they would, under such an encouragement and impulse, all marry at the very earliest age of maturity: but the increasing rents of cabins and of land, the necessary consequence of a numerous competition, must operate as a permanent corrective. When the earnings of a man are found insufficient to maintain a family, he will be discouraged from marrying; and, as rents advance, this will gradually be the case.—Another circumstance is to be considered: Mr. C. tells us that 'the wages per day for the men are from eight-pence to ten-pence—women, seven-pence to ten-pence.' In England, the wages of men engaged in agriculture are three times as much, and yet they are insufficient for the maintenance of a large family without parochial relief: but the redundant population of Ireland must keep wages low, and it has no poor-laws *to make up the deficiency*. Now, if the natural fertility of the soil in Ireland, employed in the culture of that vegetable which yields the greatest abundance of human food, joined to the cotter-system, does on the one hand encourage a rapid population, we must consider that an advance in the rent of land, accompanied by a depression in the price of labour, both growing out of that very increase in the population, is calculated to counteract its extension to any ruinous excess; and therefore we do not expect to see the anticipations on this subject realized, either of Mr. Newenham or Mr. Curwen: while the latter, we think, is inconsistent in deprecating the very high rents that are given. A greater contrast can scarcely exist than that which is exhibited in the Moravian settlement and the wretched cabins in the village of Lessenaugh. *He* must be devoid of the common feelings of humanity who does not sympathize with both: whose bosom does not glow with animation and delight at the order, cleanliness, activity, and comfort of the one, and melt at the picture of misery, indolence, privation, and despondency exhibited in the other. Now, it is obvious that this impressive contrast must result from some other circumstance than the political, or, if the word may thus be used without impropriety, statistical condition of Ireland; because the operation of this latter is universal. The fact is that a kindly superintendence prevails over the Moravian settlement, and an interest is taken in its prosperity, which the village of Lessenaugh, — whether it be the property of some absentee or of some great land-owner, resident possibly in Ireland, but who has transferred to the middle-man his own immediate and useful connection with his tenantry, — has no opportunity of enjoying. One of the gravest objections against the Union is its tendency to increase the number of absentees.

Ireland wants capital, and therefore possesses a redundancy of labourers, notwithstanding that wages are eight-pence and ten-pence per day: while the people suffer under the reproach of idleness — because they can get no work! This very low price of labour, we might have expected, would tempt our English manufacturers of woollen, cotton, and silk, to avail themselves of its advantages in fixing their establishments in that country. Multitudes of children and adults might thus find constant employment; while their very exertions, as Mr. C. properly remarks, would produce a farther demand for labourers in husbandry by augmenting the demand of food from the soil. 'The earnings of children,' he continues, 'who had never before assisted but in the consumption of the produce of the parents' labour, would soon repair the tattered roof, and dry the muddy floor. To these indispensables, comforts would succeed, and such artificial wants as honest pride, with moderation, might demand, and humanity gladden to see enjoyed.' After the gloomy views which Mr. Curwen has taken, it delighted us to mark the kindling of this ray of hope: but, alas! it is instantly extinguished; and, like Prospero, he starts back even from the lovely visions of his own creation.

> 'Pleasing as the contemplation of so much political good may be, yet, when it is regarded by the eye of the moralist, it may, by possibility, be seen in less attractive colours. Unquestionably, manufactures would produce profitable labor—profitable labor would create wealth—wealth artificial wants; yet these might generate vicious habits, to the destruction of all the true felicities of life. The sacrifice of domestic happiness in the cabin may be the price of fine clothes for children; or, in other words, the multiplication of wants, though justified by augmented earnings, is no security for the uninterrupted continuance of that sincerity of affection which now lightens the misery of the wet mud floor, by a participation in the wretchedness endured. The exposed cottier on the bog, unsheltered and unpossessed of comforts when at home, partakes more of the substantial blessings of man than the well protected, well appointed artisan in the city with treble his earnings. The former is far removed from the casualties, which are closely impending over the head of the latter; and when those to which he is obnoxious threaten or assail him, he is better provided, by being aware of their approach. Compare the indulging, happy mother, existing only in her wretched cabin, with the high-fed alluring damsel partaking the luxuries of any great town. The exterior of the latter far surpasses that of the former—but how do they contrast in every quality that constitutes individual earthly happiness, and contributes to command respect?
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> 'On this view of the subject, I cannot but hesitate, after what I have seen, in pronouncing for an extension of manufactories in Ireland; because I am most sincerely desirous that its numerous peasantry should continue to retain the full possession of their present moral feelings, which I am fearful the change might destroy. And yet, I would fain hope, a supply of constant employment, and a consequent elevation from their present ignoble state, when regarded as human beings like ourselves, might not on making the experiment be found incompatible. If we reason like patriots, we must decide politically; if as moralists, we must not be surprised should the doctrines be found at variance with each other.'

It was remarked that the low price of labour has not, in addition to the staple manufactory of Ireland, invited manufactories of cotton, wool, and silk from England. The cause has not been investigated: but we suspect that it may be found in the operation of our poor-laws. It is recorded in evidence before the House of Commons that the workmen employed at Manchester in that very extensive branch of industry, weaving, received in one year only 4s. per week, and in another year from 6s. to 7s. The poor wretches, thus robbed of the fair reward of their labour, were sent in the humiliating form of paupers to receive a maintenance from the overseer out of the parish-purse, which was thus likewise robbed to benefit the masters. No branch of industry, which will not support itself and its own labourers, can be beneficial to the country; and yet is the country taxed to support this unprofitable branch. Is it not probable that, but for the resource which our poor-laws afforded, the manufacturers of Lancashire must either have raised the wages of their workmen, or have removed their establishments to some other quarter; *perhaps to Ireland*, where a redundant population, living on the potatoe, were already working at an average rate of wages more than two-thirds less than the average rate in England? It will be recollected that, at the time when these Letters were written, all Europe was one field of battle; a season most unpropitious for the establishment of new manufactories, and for extending the boundaries of commerce: but it may be hoped that the termination of this universal contest will lead to the culture of peaceful arts, and promote that most desirable of all objects, the profitable employment of the Irish peasantry.

Mr. Curwen skirts the northern coast; and this part of the country, which formerly imported grain, has within the last few years exported wheat in considerable quantities. Potatoes and a little oat-cake are yet, indeed, the staple food of the people: but, as the growth of wheat is annually augmenting, it may be hailed as an auspicious omen, and regarded as another mild but permanent, powerful, and increasing corrective of superabundant population. The use of corn would be a most favourable change.

At Londonderry, a school has been projected and established for the education of a hundred and fifty children on Dr. Bell's system, and on the most liberal plan, by the indefatigable exertions of the Bishop of Derry. One hundred and twenty of the children taught *are of the Catholic persuasion.* It will, indeed, as Mr. C. observes, be a proud preeminence for Great Britain to maintain among the civilized nations of the world, if, in twenty years, few shall be found, out of her many millions, who are destitute of the ability to perceive and perform their duty towards God and their neighbour. We recollect that Mr. Newenham spoke in the highest terms of the general care and superintendence of the Catholic clergy, as a body, over the education of the lower classes; and he stated that, while the Protestant schools, with all the pecuniary aid of Government, were far from being in a flourishing state, the Catholic schools were numerously and regularly attended. It is highly honourable to a Protestant bishop that he should take such interest in the education of Catholic children; and we would gladly infuse into Mr. Curwen's mind a hope that this, likewise, will in due time prove a salutary and powerful corrective. In the present state of public opinion, it is quite unnecessary to expatiate on the advantages, as well to society at large as to the individuals themselves, of an universal extension of the elements of education. Their interests, indeed, are one and the same. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, acquirements of sufficient excellence in themselves to merit every encouragement, are by no means the only objects, or even the most important, to which a well-conducted system of education leads: for such a system not merely strengthens the faculties of the mind by giving them exercise during the hours of school, but it leads to habits of order, discipline, and industry, at home; which essentially conduce to the prosperity of every individual in his intercourse with the world; and which are eminently calculated, when diffused over a whole population, to raise and sustain the character of the country in which they prevail, to promote its wealth, to insure its happiness, and to support its independence. Intellect is the raw material which Nature supplies, and to the Irish she has furnished it with no parsimonious hand: it is the business of education to teach us how to employ it to the best advantage; — how to work it up, if the metaphor be allowable, into those infinite varieties of fabric for which the world has always a demand. It appeared from the investigation which took place in the House of Commons two or three years ago, on the subjects of mendicity and crime, that, in those districts in which the means of education were most deficient, the lowest profligacy was engendered, and every species of debauchery and vice existed in their most loathsome forms. What may not be expected, then, from those philanthropists who are labouring to unseal the eyes of such as sit in darkness, and to shed on them the light of instruction! The rising generation, Irish * as well as English,

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* Lord Sunderlin is a warm advocate for educating the poor, and opened a school 'for the cheap and easy instruction of children

English, will take a higher station in the scale of intellectual beings than their fathers held; and, as they advance in knowlege, so will they improve, we trust, in morals and in virtue: for the better a man knows his duty, the better will he be able and the more will he be disposed to perform it. This intellectual improvement, conferring the habit of observation and reflection, will stimulate a desire for those comforts and conveniences, the absence of which among the Irish cotters Mr. Curwen so feelingly deplores; and thus, we imagine, it will operate to restrain excessive population. Mere food, and that food the potatoe, will not be deemed by a young man the only requisite to his establishment in life. Before he marries the object of his affection, he will pause, and consider whether he can buy a little furniture for his cabin, to make that cabin comfortable; and whether the probable average of his earnings will enable him to clothe decently as well as to feed himself, his wife, and their children. These may be the golden visions of Utopia: but we would rather indulge them than feel the despondency which presses so heavily on the heart of Mr. Curwen.

Under the patronage of the excellent Bishop of Derry, who has promoted the undertaking by many thousand pounds from his private purse, a public school also is established, on the plan of Westminster, for youths, who are here prepared for the university of Dublin. Two other useful establishments likewise exist at Londonderry; the one a "Repository for work," where all that is brought is purchased without the exposure of the names of the industrious parties by whom it was performed: — the other, a charitable "Loan Society," which lends money, interest free, in sums of two, three, four, or five pounds, to be repaid by weekly instalments of sixpence in each pound. It appears to have been conducted with great regularity and advantage. — In this as in every other instance in which comfort and moral improvement are concerned, we see the benevolence of the venerable prelate called into action, and sanctioning its views with his name and his assistance.

From Londonderry, Mr. Curwen proceeds in a south-western direction along the coast to Sligo, Galway, Ennis, and Limerick; visiting the Lakes of Killarney, Cork, Dublin, &c.

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dren of all religious denominations' in 1807. The Lancasterian plan was attempted, and failed. The order and method introduced among the children alarmed the parents, *who thought that it partook of military discipline, and was a scheme to entice or entrap them into the army.* This fact speaks volumes.

—Every traveller catches inspiration at the Lakes of Killarney, which have been frequently described in the most glowing and rapturous language; and gladly would we afford some specimens of Mr. Curwen's powers of description, for

> —— "in this tract,
> How long soe'er the wanderer roves, each step
> Shall wake fresh beauties; each short point present
> A different picture, new and yet the same:"

but we have already drawn on him freely. Perhaps, also, language alone is insufficient to convey distinct ideas of visible objects; and, if any person doubts this, let him employ two artists to paint from the same description, and he will find the products of their pencils differing in a thousand circumstances. Description is addressed to the imagination through the ear: but, however musical may be the language in which it is conveyed, it soon palls even on that sense which it seems to soothe and flatter. Mr. Weld's "Illustrations of the Scenery of Killarney" will be consulted with pleasure: for his descriptions were accompanied with a number of elegant and highly-finished engravings.

Mr. Curwen, not having perhaps any peculiar taste for antiquarian lore, does not appear to have visited any of the ruined abbeys and churches, the monumental relics, tumuli, cromlechs, stone-crosses, and round towers, which are so common in some parts of Ireland. He did not even see the very celebrated abbey of Mucross, although he was within a very short distance of it. Mucross-abbey in Killarney is highly venerated for its sanctity, and is so favourite a burial-place that a day scarcely passes without the ceremony of interment, with its cries, and howlings, and mockeries of woe; and many bodies are brought from great distances to be there deposited. In a tour through Ireland which Sir Richard Hoare published some years ago, he remarked with disgust, on visiting the churches, how little respect was paid to the memory of the dead and the health of the living. The churches and their cemeteries were a disgrace to the country and to humanity; a field of battle, he says, alone can equal the disgusting and desolated appearance which each Irish golgotha presents to the astonished stranger. The very *area* of the cathedral of Ardfert was crowded with tombs, and thickly strewed with bones and skulls. At Buttevant-abbey, coffins with skeletons were exposed to public view through the apertures of the stones; and the floors of Mucross-abbey, like the others, were white with the mouldering fragments of the dead. Mr. Weld says that, in a passage leading to the cloister, he once found a human a human head with a considerable part of the flesh of the face and nearly the entire hair on it, literally rolling under his feet. We should gladly have been informed that these loathsome and ghastly objects had been removed, and the atmosphere relieved from the pestilence with which it was tainted, in the centre of a spot which nature has enriched with a profusion of romantic beauties.

From Dublin, Mr. Curwen goes to Meath, Cavan, Newry, and Rosstrevor, the Montpelier of the British empire. By thus taking a circle round the island, and striking occasionally into the interior, he was enabled to form a comparative view of the state of agriculture in different parts, and of the peasantry. The latter subject, in particular, is perpetually recurring to his mind: which is impressed with so keen a sensibility to the wretchedness of their situation that, before the chord has ceased to vibrate from one impulse, it is struck again more forcibly with a second; till at last we are compelled to suspect, in spite of all our theories and reasonings, that the peasantry may be in a lower state of degradation, and may be suffering under a more abject misery, than we could imagine. We remark one — would that we could say only one! — very striking and painful difference between Ireland and England. In England, to use the glowing language of Mr. Sheridan, " the rise and progress of society is one ascending slope, without break or landing place; no sullen line of demarcation separates and cuts off the several orders from each other, but all is one blended tint, from the deepest shade which veils the meanest occupation of laborious industry, to the brightest hue that glitters in the luxurious pageantry of title, wealth, and power." In Ireland, to say nothing of the religious intolerance which depresses and grinds an immense majority of the people, the line of demarcation between rich and poor is strong and harsh, and they are separated by a vast and melancholy void. We believe that much truth belongs to a remark of Mr. Curwen that, to the subdivision of the land in Great Britain, *among all ranks*, may be referred that independence of character in the people and that general improvement over the face of the country which excite the admiration of foreigners. In Ireland, the contrast between the extremes of affluence and poverty shocks the traveller, from the want of those intermediate links which ought to connect them. A noble mansion is approached by a dilapidated lodge, and surrounded by cabins of which the tenants are all in filth and rags. Even the vicinity of Dublin indicates no improvement in the general appearance of these huts: the suburbs presenting a motley mixture of riches and poverty, the handsomest villas in the midst of the poorest dwellings. A very large portion of the wealth of the country is confined to that class which constitutes a bare fifth of the population, namely the Protestants, but which embraces the nobility, clergy, army, and persons connected with Government in an official capacity. Mr. Curwen thinks that the number of servants in these classes is in a ratio directly inverse to that of the number employed by persons of the Catholic persuasion. All power and patronage, all the subordinate offices of state are filled by Protestants; while the army and navy relieve that part of the community from any surplus in its population.

The soil of Ireland has ever been noted for its fertility; it seems impossible to sterilize it; and we venture to assert that no one but a farmer can duly appreciate its exhaustless fecundity. This is very probably one of the reasons that agriculture has hitherto been so wretchedly conducted: because, where nature does every thing, man does nothing: he must be roused from his indolence and lethargy by some adequate stimulus. Thus it is that, in some of those counties in England in which the poorest soil prevails, the best and most profitable system of agriculture is established. Crops of corn succeed each other as long as the soil will produce them; and, when they fail, recourse is had to grass, which grows luxuriantly without cultivation. From Ardbracken, in Meath, Mr. C. writes that it is not uncommon to have seven crops of oats in succession, and that instances are related of lands being thus employed for twenty years without intermission; bearing, to the last, productive and profitable crops! Old grass-lands are considered as equal to the growth of potatoes without manure, and to the production of four or five crops of oats afterward. Some lands belonging to Lord Sunderlin, at Springles, had produced in eight years three crops of potatoes in succession without manure; and they were followed by five crops of oats, the last of which was the most productive! Such instances, and many such are related, seem incredible, and may well account for the indolence and inattention of the Irish husbandman: — but the same exuberant power of reproduction which Nature bestows on grass, potatoes, and corn, she likewise bestows on docks, thistles, and other weeds, their deadly enemies; at least, we consider them so in England, but it seems that in Ireland they thrive harmoniously together. Agricultural societies, however, are starting up in various places; and the exertions of a few individuals, Admiral Heath, Mr. Wynne, Lord Farnham, the

Bishop of Derry, and some other gentlemen who reside on their estates, give us hope that this wondrous fertility of soil will not much longer be wasted on plants of evil growth. The Irish, indeed, have a stimulus to exertion which goes a great way towards negativing the advantages of this fertility, as far as the occupier is concerned. This concentrated stimulus is composed of tythes and rents. The former, passing through the hands of those merciless petty tyrants, yclept proctors, are exacted with the inexorable rigour of Shylock's bond; and the latter, varying in different parts from three or four pounds per acre to eight or ten, and in some cases to much more, might be deemed sufficient to keep a man on the alert, notwithstanding the low price of labour and his exemption from poor-laws. Mr. Curwen states that agriculture suffers great injury from the general practice of thatching with straw; and that probably the produce of a hundred thousand acres is annually thus wasted, which, if judiciously converted into manure, would be sufficient to supply twenty-five thousand acres of arable land. The bogs in Ireland are estimated by Dr. Beaufort at 2,000,000 of acres, or nearly a ninth part of the island: mountains, water, and wastes, at about 3,000,000; which, if it contains altogether 18,500,000 acres, and 13,500,000 can be applicable to the purposes of husbandry, would allow but two acres and a quarter for the subsistence of each individual of the present population: yet, from the general use of potatoes, Ireland is enabled to export produce to the amount of eight millions sterling. The cultivation of a single statute-acre of potatoes may certainly be performed by one individual; and Mr. Curwen thinks that its produce, on an average, will furnish food for at least ten persons throughout the year, giving the ample allowance of seven pounds each per day.

We must now with reluctance close these volumes. Under the unassuming denomination of a diary, Mr. Curwen has thrown together his reflections on a great variety of the most important topics; and it is superfluous to say that they are the reflections of a man of good sense, good feelings, liberal sentiments, and comprehensive views. — Some anecdotes of Mr. Burke incidentally occur, which are curious and interesting, and with them we shall terminate the article:

'Political connections had early made him the champion of liberty, and the friend to American independence; but these perhaps were not his real unbiassed opinions, as I have ever regarded him to be a whig from interest, though a tory in principle. In the religious as well as political tenets, by which his conduct was governed, he was equally intolerant. This opinion is confirmed by circumstances which fell under my observation in the spring of 1790, when the Duke of Athol's claims on the Isle of Man were under examination. I then frequently saw Mr. Burke, and being asked to breakfast with him, to meet a professor from the University of Leipsic at his house in Gerard-street, the conversation principally turned on the state of the German empire, and the views and conduct of the Illuminati. Mr. Burke considered their influence to be of a very extensive and dangerous nature, and that the Emperor Joseph had been made their dupe; that the changes in Bohemia, emancipating the people from feudal oppression, had been at the instigation of the Illuminati, and to them were attributable the subsequent disturbances.

'Though completely ignorant, at that period, of every matter relative to farming, I had been much pleased with the appearance of Bohemia, where the industry and energy of the people seemed to be greater; and, as far as superficial observations enabled me to form a judgment, the cultivation of its soil seemed to surpass that of the neighbouring states. This information, as I had so recently passed through the country, I thought might be acceptable, and have some weight in our discussions — but I was mistaken; Mr. Burke burst out into a paroxysm of rage, and, in the most unqualified language, positively denied the facts I had stated. I was not less astonished than hurt at this departure from good breeding; but there was no alternative, between a silent suppression of the indignity I received, and a positive quarrel.

'I continued on friendly terms with Mr. Burke until after his unprovoked and cold-blooded attack on Mr. Fox, the cruelty of which admits of no extenuation: had it occurred in the heat of debate, some excuse might have been pleaded. It was known that he differed from Mr. Fox on the topic of the revolution in France, and it had been intimated for some days that Mr. Burke intended to pronounce a bitter invective against the party: there was no question before the house, nor did he premise that he had any to propose; but, contrary to order, he entered on the subject of the French revolution. The matter and the manner of Mr. Fox's reply interested the feelings of every individual in the house, whose heart was not ossified by the corrupt lust of power. Mr. Pitt, in my opinion, never lost himself more than at the moment he was cheering and seeming to approve this unjustifiable attack. To abet the dereliction of friends, for the purpose of strengthening his own situation, and securing to himself a further acquisition of power and support, might be consonant to the views of base and of sordid minds; but it was wholly unworthy of Mr. Pitt.

'The most powerful feelings were manifested on the adjournment of the house; — Mr. Burke's violence had completely destroyed the effect, which the wisdom of his political maxims, under other circumstances, was calculated to inspire. If they, whose views he meant to further, had spoken candidly, they must have avowed, that he had injured the cause it was his intention to benefit.

'Whilst I was waiting for my carriage, Mr. Burke came up to me and requested, as the night was wet, I would set him down — I could not refuse — though I confess I felt a reluctance in complying. As soon as the carriage door was shut, he complimented me on my being no friend to the revolutionary doctrines of the French; on which he spoke with great warmth for a few minutes; when he paused, to afford me an opportunity of approving the view he had taken of those measures in the House. Former experience had taught me the consequences of dissenting from his opinions, yet, at the moment, I could not help feeling disinclined to disguise or stifle my sentiments. In a few words, I declared that I differed most completely from him — that I sincerely wished to every nation a constitution as free as our own, and that the cause of liberty might triumph all over the world! — Mr. Burke, catching hold of the check-string, furiously exclaimed, "You are one of these people! set me down!" With some difficulty I restrained him; — we had then reached Charing-Cross — a silence ensued, which was preserved till we reached his house in Gerard-street, when he hurried out of the carriage without speaking, and thus our intercourse ended.

'Though I often, afterwards, found myself accidentally seated next Mr. Burke in the House of Commons, every interchange of civility between us was suspended.'

This work is unprovided with an index, but an analytical table of contents is prefixed, and the subjects of each page are indicated at the top: — an excellent practice.

ART. III. *History of Brazil;* by Robert Southey. Part the Second. 4to. pp. 718. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

SEVEN years have passed since the appearance of the first volume of the History of Brazil by Mr. Southey; and, long as the interval has been, its lapse ceases to be a matter of surprise when we consider the various and more pressing avocations of the writer. The periodical duties of the laureatship, and the triumphs of Wellington, have presented, we suppose, much more tempting themes than the records of Brazil and Paraguay. At last, however, Mr. S. has found means to give a finished form to his long collected materials, and promises soon to lay before the public the third and final volume of his work. The first closed with the state of Brazil towards the middle of the 17th century; the present takes it up at that period (1640), and carries it on to 1685; leaving thus an extra proportion of time, if not of interesting matter, to the concluding volume. It is not a little difficult, from causes to be presently mentioned, to exhibit a connected view of the volume now before us: but we shall proceed on the same plan as with its predecessor *, and shall commence by dividing it into three leading parts.

I. The War carried on between the Dutch and Portuguese in Brazil.

II. The Establishment of the Jesuits in Paraguay.

III. General History of Brazil from 1640 to 1685.

Dutch war. — Portugal had remained during sixty years under the dominion of Spain, but was restored to national independence by that revolution which in 1640 re-instated the house of Braganza on the throne. The Dutch, having attacked Brazil only as a part of the dominions of their former oppressors, were in some measure pledged to desist from warfare when that colony, like the mother-country, became separated from the Spanish empire. It was in this light that the new Portuguese government was anxious to contemplate the political fate of Brazil; and no time was lost in concluding in Europe a truce for ten years, with the hope that all disputes on the subject of territory would be definitively settled in that period: but the Dutch were eager for colonial acquisitions, and relied on acquiring an extended footing in Brazil from the weakness and instability of the court of Lisbon. They were, moreover, under the impression that Portugal would be unable to defend her independence against Spain; and that to restore Brazil to their new friend was merely to throw it into the hand of their inveterate enemy. They could not refuse so fair an overture as a ten years' truce: but they sent out secret instructions to their commander in Brazil to invade a large extent of territory, in the interval before an official notification of the new treaty could be received. This Machiavelian plan was pursued, and at first with considerable success: but it soon met with the merited result; the Portuguese rising up against their assailants, and, after great difficulties, driving them from their new acquisitions. This success of the Portuguese was chiefly due to the energy of an individual, Joam Fernandes Vieira, who occupies a conspicuous place in Mr. Southey's historical picture; and who evinced a degree of intrepidity, perseverance, and judgment, by no means to be expected in the inhabitant of a half-civilized community. Our limits do not admit of enlarging on any of his exploits: but our readers may be gratified by the account of a singular action fought between the Dutch and their opponents under the command of a native chieftain named Camaram, who displayed no small share of tactical skill and sagacity :

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* M. R. Vol. lxix.

' Camaram was strongly posted on a little river between Cunhau and the fort. The river being in that part too deep to be forded, protected his front; in his rear was a thicket of tabocas, an accident which, reminding the Portugueze of one victory, would be considered as the auspicious omen of another. On the north and south the position was open, and trenches were thrown up to cover it: Camaram stationed Bezerra on the north, and on the south he took post himself. His force consisted of six hundred men, of whom only one hundred were Portugueze, and one hundred and fifty were archers from the river S. Francisco; but his own men were excellent troops; they were unerring marksmen, thoroughly disciplined, and in all things but the art of war, the love of plunder, and the routine of their religion, as savage as ever. — His musqueteers were arranged in three files; they were ordered to take aim so as not to waste a shot, the first rank to fall back and reload while the second took its place, in like manner to be succeeded by the third. They were to set up the shout of victory in the heat of the action, in the hope of dismaying the Dutch; and if powder, balls, or matches should fail, instead of calling for what they wanted they were to cry S. Antonio, or S. John; this being understood, they should immediately be supplied; and it would have the double advantage of keeping the heretics ignorant of any momentary deficiency of ammunition, and of provoking those slaves of the Infernal Spirit to blaspheme; for when they heard the saints called upon, they would exclaim "De Duivel!" and "Sacrement!" Rhineberg, who commanded the Dutch, approached on that side where Camaram had placed himself, and attacked the trenches. He suffered severely in the attempt; for Camaram's men, being sure that no ball would be spent in vain, determined to send enough, and therefore put two or three in every charge. By a consequence equally unforeseen and ludicrous, this contributed as much to their own safety as to the loss of the enemy; for firing with this heavy charge, and as fast as they could reload, their Biscayan guns, when they became heated, recoiled with such force against the breast as to knock them down, a whole rank at a time, and the enemy's shot past over them; Camaram, when he first saw them fall, thought that they were killed; and his surprise was equal to his joy when he beheld them rise again unhurt. Rhineberg, soon finding it impossible to force this quarter, divided his troops into three bodies; with the one he continued the attack as a feint, and sent the others, one to attempt the passage of the river higher up, the other to force the cane-thicket. Here the former scene among the tabocas was repeated; and the Dutch, having fallen into two ambuscades, and received the fire of both, took to flight. The other body attempted in vain to cross the stream; the Indian archers were ready upon the banks, and they who entered the river were arrowed there. The cry of Victory was now set up by the main body, with all the success that Camaram could have desired; Rhineberg thought they were about to rush out upon his divided and dispirited troops, and precipitately retired, leaving an hundred and fifteen of his men dead upon the field, and the whole of his baggage.'

These hostilities between the Portuguese and the Dutch continued for a number of years; the latter having the local population on their side, while the former received more effectual support from Europe. Fortune, however, proved in general unfaithful to the Hollanders, and shewed, as in the memorable contest for the independence of our North American colonies, that the attachment of the people is a more powerful auxiliary than all the financial and military means of a parent-country. Recife, the last strong hold possessed by the Dutch in Brazil, was taken from them in 1654; and, after the war had lingered six years longer, a treaty was concluded, by which the Dutch, for certain considerations, relinquished all their claims in this part of the world.

II. *Establishment of the Jesuits in Paraguay.* — It was in the year 1586 that this society was first introduced into the interior of South America; the lamentable state of religion in the diocese of Tucuman (in the country of Guayra) having led the bishop to invite over a few ecclesiastics to bear a part in the conversion of his uncivilized neighbours. Whatever may have been the eventual ambition of the Jesuits, their early exertions were zealous and disinterested; they preached the Gospel with indefatigable perseverance, though surrounded with danger from the rude character of the natives, and from the inveterate hostility of one tribe to another. The great scene of their activity was not among the Indians who were subject to Spanish masters, but among their still more unpolished brethren whose country had not yet been occupied by Europeans. Even here, however, the Spanish colonists throughout Paraguay were hostile to the success of the missionaries, in consequence of the prevalence of a base practice of assigning bodies of the natives with tracts of land to new adventurers. This state of bondage was professedly alleviated by law, but law was little more than a form in so wide and uncultivated a region. The Spanish government had enacted that Indians in subjection to European masters should be intitled to their freedom after the second generation, a period of two lives being deemed sufficient for that improvement which qualified them for emancipation: but this liberal provision was perpetually eluded, on the pretext that the Indians were not sufficiently civilized. In consequence of these difficulties, many of the Jesuits perished by accidents, by fatigue, by the climate, or by the sword of the more savage part of the Indians; while others persevered in the exercise of their mission, amid adventures of the most romantic and hazardous nature.

'Ortega and Filds continued many years in Guayra, itinerating among the savages. In one of these excursions the former was caught by a sudden flood between two rivers: both overflowed, and presently the whole plain had the appearance of one boundless lake. The missionary and the party of Neophytes who accompanied him were used to inconveniences of this kind, and thought to escape, as heretofore, with marching mid-deep in water: but the flood continued to rise, and compelled them to take to the trees for safety. The storm increased, the rain continued, and the inundation augmented; and among the beasts and reptiles whom the waters had surprized one of the huge American serpents approached the tree upon which Ortega and his catechist had taken refuge, and coiling round one of the branches, began to ascend, while they fully expected to be devoured, having neither means of escape nor of defence: the branch by which he sought to lift himself broke under his weight, and the monster swam off. But though they were thus delivered from this danger, their situation was truly dreadful: two days passed, and in the middle of the second night one of the Indians came swimming towards the tree by the lightning's light, and called to Ortega, telling him that six of his companions were at the point of death; they who had not yet been baptized intreated him to baptize them, and those who had received that sacrament requested absolution ere they died. The Jesuit fastened his catechist to the bough by which he held, then let himself down into the water, and swam to perform these offices; he had scarcely completed them before five of these poor people dropt and sunk: and when he got back to his own tree the water had reached the neck of his catechist, whom he had now to untie, and help him to gain a higher branch. The flood, however, now began to abate. Ortega, in swimming among the thorny boughs, received a wound in his leg, which was never thoroughly healed during the two-and-twenty years that he survived this dreadful adventure.'

After an historical sketch of the labours of the Jesuits during a century, Mr. S. proceeds (p. 333.) to give a general view of their system, and of the manners of the natives educated under their charge: steering a middle course between those who have lavished unqualified panegyric on the labours of these missionaries, and others who have made them an object of calumny. Many of the Indians had been converted by the zeal of their indefatigable teachers: but, as the latter were few in number, and the huts or villages were widely distant from each other, their illiterate proselytes were constantly relapsing into their former idolatry. To give permanent utility to the labours of the missionaries, it was evidently necessary to collect the Indians into larger bodies, to instruct them in the arts of civilized life, and to place regular teachers in the towns to watch over their moral conduct. In 1593, the first settlement on this plan was formed at Villa Rica, but it was not till 1608 that a system for the general government of the Indians was adopted. The settlements were large villages, or towns, called Reductions. The Jesuits, from their experience in Europe, were aware of the vices that beset civilized society; and they had before their eyes a revolting proof of the miseries of the savage state: their object, therefore, was to reclaim the Indians from the one, while they prevented them, by a variety of precautions, from falling into the other. Their leading rule was to keep their converts in a state of pupilage, training them to the greatest docility, but never seeking to carry them beyond a given stage in the progress of knowlege. They established, as nearly as they could, a community of goods; allotting to each family a portion of land sufficient for its use, and lending oxen for cultivating it from the common stock: while two larger portions, one in corn and another in cotton, were cultivated for the community. Each Reduction had a magistracy, on the plan of Spanish towns; with a corregidor, alcaldes, regidores, and alguazils: together with two Jesuits, a senior or rector, and a younger member acting as the rector's assistant: one of whom was always on the spot, while the other traversed the adjoining territory to visit the sick. The Reductions were all built on the same plan; the houses occupying three sides of a large square; and each house, or more properly cottage, consisting of a single room about 24 feet square. On the fourth side of the square were the church, the public work-shops, and the burial-ground. The average population of a Reduction was 3000. Early marriages were strongly recommended; the age of seventeen for males and fifteen for females being accounted the proper time for entering the conjugal state. A hammock, a chest or two, and a few benches or stools, were all the furniture, and indeed all the property, of the young couple. No inhabitant of the Reductions knew, during his whole progress from the cradle to the grave, what it was to "take thought for the morrow:" all his duties were comprized in obedience.

'The children were considered as belonging to the community; they lived with their parents, that the course of natural affection might not be interrupted; but their education was a public duty. Early in the morning the bell summoned them to church, where having prayed and been examined in the catechism, they heard mass; their breakfast was then given them at the Rector's from the public stores; after which they were led by an elder, who acted both as overseer and censor, to their daily occupations. From the earliest age the sexes were separated; they did not even enter the church by the same door, nor did woman or girl ever set foot within the Jesuit's house. The business of the young girls was to gather the cotton, and drive away birds from the field. The boys were employed in weeding, keeping the roads in order, and other tasks suited to their strength.'—

'Upon holidays the men amused themselves, after evening service, with mock-battles, or shooting arrows at a mark, or playing with a ball of gum elastic, which they struck with the upper part of the foot. On working-days, if they had any leisure from public or private occupation, they went fowling, hunting, and fishing. Some were employed as shepherds and herdsmen, and in tending the horses of the community. The women had their full share of labour; they provided the houses with wood and water; they assisted their husbands in cultivating the private ground; they were the potters; and the mistress of every family received weekly a certain portion of raw cotton, to be spun for the common stores. Considerable progress had been made both in the useful and ornamental arts. Besides carpenters, masons, and blacksmiths, they had turners, carvers, painters, and gilders; they cast bells and built organs. In these arts they were instructed by some of the lay-brethren, among whom artificers of every kind were found. Metal was brought from Buenos Ayres, at an enormous cost, having been imported there from Europe. They were taught enough of mechanics to construct horse-mills, enough of hydraulics to raise water for irrigating the lands, and supplying their stews, and public cisterns for washing. A Guarani, however nice the mechanism, could imitate any thing which was set before him. There were several weavers in every Reduction, who worked for the public stock; and a certain number were employed for the use of individuals, women taking their thread to the steward, and receiving an equal weight in cloth when it had past through the loom, the weavers being paid from the treasury. This was the produce of their private culture, and in this some little incitement was afforded to vanity and voluntary exertion; for they were supplied every year with a certain quantity of clothing, and what they provided themselves was so much finery. In their unreclaimed state some of these tribes were entirely naked, and the others nearly so,—but the love of dress became almost a universal passion among them as soon as they acquired the first rudiments of civilization. "Give them any thing fine," says Dobrizhoffer, "and—*in cœlum jusseris, ibunt.*" This, therefore, was one of the ways by which his colleagues enticed them to Heaven.'

The object of the Jesuits was not only to employ but to amuse the people; and the latter intention was much promoted by the exterior splendor of the Catholic religion.

As the Indians possessed a singular aptitude for music, this talent was cultivated for the church-service, with such success as to make a Spanish author say that the Indians were "born like birds with an instinct for singing." Dancing was also taught, but with caution; boys and youths being the only performers, while the grown men and females, of any age or condition, attended merely as spectators. Punishments were here milder than in most societies; offences, which elsewhere would have been punished capitally, incurring only twelve months of imprisonment, with some additional correctives. Years, however, would pass away without the commission of a deadly sin, and the Jesuits declared that it was even rare to hear a confession that made absolution necessary. Vices were in a great measure excluded by the constitution of the community: avarice and ambition were out of the question; and drunkenness, the great evil of half-civilized man, was effectually prevented by the prohibition of fermented liquors. Spanish planters and traders were carefully excluded from the Reductions; and when, in certain towns, an intercourse with them was allowed, it was confined strictly to commercial transactions, the inn for strangers being apart from the dwellings of the Indians, and the former being dismissed as soon as the exchange of commodities was completed. The mercantile business of a settlement was, in a great measure, carried on at the remote towns of Buenos Ayres or Santa Fé, by factors who received the products of the Reduction and returned the value in tools, oil, salt, linen, silk, or church-ornaments. The main articles of export from the Reductions were cotton, and the matté or herb of Paraguay, which is used throughout this part of Spanish America almost as generally as tea in England. The Spanish colonists had, in many instances, destroyed the trees that produce this herb: but the Jesuits, on the other hand, preserved and improved the mode of managing them.

'Among the numberless calumnies with which the Jesuits have been assailed, it was asserted that they lived like princes in their empire of Paraguay; and gave free scope to themselves in all those sensualities from which their converts were interdicted. The romances of Catholic hagiology are far from representing their saints as being free from temptation; but nothing in those romances is more monstrous than it would be to believe that these missionaries were influenced by any other motives than those of duty towards God and man. The men appointed to this service had given evidence of their enthusiasm by entering the Company, and requesting to be sent upon the mission: here then was proof in every individual of his inclination, and thence a probability of his fitness for the work; and in the Jesuit order every man had that station assigned him for which he was adapted by his qualities, good or evil,—from those who directed the councils of Catholic monarchs, or organized conspiracies in heretical countries, to the humble lay-servant of a hospital, who offered himself with all the ardour of religious love for the most loathsome offices which suffering humanity requires. In the younger brethren, who acted as assistants in the Reductions while they were learning the language, it might sometimes happen that enthusiasm would abate, and that they would yield to propensities, which the unnatural state in which they were placed, and the errors in which they were bred, made it sinful to indulge. But such instances must necessarily have been very rare. The life of a missionary, after he began his labours in seeking out the wild Indians, was spent in the most arduous toils, the severest privations, and the greatest dangers, which were frequently terminated by untimely death. By the time that he was thought competent to the charge of a Reduction, the intellectual and moral habits were fixed: there was the pride of character to support, both his own and that of the Company, and there was the more powerful control of principle and of faith. The sacrifices which he had made of worldly ambition, of all the natural affections, and of the comforts of civilized life, were then amply rewarded. From the temptation of doubting the fables which he preached, and the idolatry which he practised, there was little danger; and the season for all other temptations was then gone by. He found himself the absolute director of a whole community, who were beholden to the Order whereof he was a member for all their comforts here and all their hopes hereafter, their peace and happiness on earth, their inheritance in heaven; he believed himself to be the immediate and accredited agent between them and their Maker; their master and his servant, the faithful shepherd of a happy flock.'—

'Excessive were the exertions which the Jesuit missionaries made, the difficulties which they underwent, and the dangers to which they exposed themselves, in seeking out and reducing the wild tribes. The itinerant set forth with his breviary, and a cross six feet in height, which served him for a staff: about thirty converts accompanied him as guides, interpreters, and servants, or rather fellow-labourers; they were armed, but not with fire-arms, and carried axes and bills to open a way through the woods, a stock of maize for their supply in case of need, and implements for producing fire. Hammocks might easily have been added, but the missionaries seldom indulged themselves with any thing that could possibly be dispensed with. The danger from wild beasts is not great in Paraguay and the adjoining provinces; but there are few parts of the world in which the traveller has so many plagues to molest him. The first business upon halting for the night, or even for a meal during the day, is to beat the ground and trample the grass for a safe distance round, in order to drive away the snakes, who are very numerous, and who are attracted by fire. The torment of insects is almost insufferable. Where there is finer grass, where there are thickets or marshes, on the borders of lakes or rivers, or where there are thick woods, there, says Dobrizhoffer, if you are to pass the night, you must not dream of sleeping. All the plagues of Egypt seem to have been transferred to the lowlands of South America. Ticks of every size are numerous enough to form a curse themselves. The open country swarms with fleas; so that he who lies down upon what he supposes to be clean turf, where there is no vestige of either man or beast, rises up black with these vermin. The *vinchuca*, or flying bug, is more formidable in houses than in the open air. Breeze-flies and wasps torment the horses and mules. But the common fly is far the most serious plague both to man and beast in this country: it gets to the ears and noses of those who are asleep, deposits its eggs, and unless timely relief be applied, the maggots eat their way into the head, and occasion the most excruciating pain and death.'

III. *General History of Brazil.* — On this part of the volume we feel very little disposition to enlarge, since it is made up of details respecting the quarrels of different governors, local insurrections, and other matters of comparatively little interest. The government of the mother-country seems to have had a very slight ascendancy over the heads of the colony; her edicts being despised, and her governors forcibly displaced whenever they endeavoured to protect the Indians, and to conform to the spirit of the humane regulations enacted at Lisbon. Unhappily, the interest of the planters was at variance with the welfare of the natives; the latter being considered merely in the light of instruments for augmenting the property of the former. Hence a repetition in Brazil of that waste of life in unseasonable labour, which has so long formed the reproach of the Spanish settlers in America. Here, as in other parts of the Trans-Atlantic continent, the cupidity of governors and individuals was early directed towards the search for the precious metals; — a subject on which we had occasion to enlarge several years ago, when reporting (M. R. vol. lxxii. p. 337.) Mr. Mawe's Travels in Brazil. Spices might, in all probability, have been as successfully cultivated here as in the Moluccas; and, indeed, from the fertility of the soil and the general salubrity of the climate, we have little doubt that Brazil would have increased faster in wealth and population, had its inhabitants never disturbed its mineral repositories. The property acquired by mining is, like all other property, the result of the progressive application of capital and labour: but to the vulgar eye it has all the attractions of fortuitous gain, and presents for a time the possibility of realizing a fortune in a few years.

It remains to notice an idea applicable to Brazil in common with other parts of America; viz. that, from remaining monuments, a presumption exists of the country having been in former ages inhabited by a race of people, who, though rude and uncivilized, were less backward than those who occupied it on the arrival of Europeans.

'Elias Herckmann was sent by Nassau into the interior of Pernambuco in search of mines. The attempt was unsuccessful; but he discovered vestiges of some forgotten people who possessed the country before the present race of savages, and of whom not even the most vague tradition had been preserved. He found two huge perfectly round stones, manifestly rounded by art, and placed by art one upon another, the largest being uppermost; they were sixteen feet in diameter, and the thickness such that a man standing on the ground could scarcely reach to the middle: and on the following day he came to some other stones, of such magnitude that it seemed impossible for any human strength to have moved them; they were piled up like altars, and Herckmann compares them to some monuments at Drenthe in Belgium. In the same part of the country Mr. Koster describes a rocking-stone. Here then in Brazil are found antiquities of the same kind as those in Britain and in the north of Europe; and it appears from the same traveller that written rocks exist in the bed of the river Paraiba. Rocks sculptured with the representations of animals, of the sun, moon, and stars, with hieroglyphical signs, and if an incurious Franciscan may be trusted, with characters also, have been recently found in Guyana, the most savage part of South America, and hitherto the least explored. These facts are highly interesting, though they baffle the curiosity which they excite, and lead to humiliating and melancholy thoughts.'

We must now close our report by a few observations on the merits of the composition. — The name of history is certainly not due to the present narrative; which consists of a succession of insulated details given in chronological order, and seldom brought together by connecting or comprehensive views. This remark applies to almost all parts of the volume, whether we look to the hostilities with the Dutch in the earlier chapters, to the labours of the Jesuits in those that follow, or finally to the general transactions in Brazil. Some of our readers will recollect that we made similar objections to Mr. S.'s first volume; and here, as on that occasion, we must urge that, for the taste of the age, Mr. S. has gone greatly too far into detail, and that he incurs, in a very considerable degree, the charge of prolixity, not indeed by diffuseness of phraseology, but by accumulation of details. Admitting that the reader may safely rely on the fidelity of the narrative, the serious fault remains that "the mass is too large and the parts too multiform." The present volume discovers also, like the former, a predilection for quaint words, such as religioners, itinerating, Columbian islands, &c.; and it is to be regretted that Mr. S. did not save his reader the perplexity of reducing foreign monies to the English standard: as also, that he has received with such confidence the exaggerated reports of Portuguese writers. The sums said to be expended by Joam Fernandes seem incredible, even when calculating the wealth of individuals by the scale of the present day. Our radical objection to the work, however, refers to its bulk, and the length at which details are given of insignificant events, and of characters unknown and uninteresting to the reading world at large; the whole exhibiting a striking proof that talents on the part of a writer cannot convey attraction when a fundamental deficiency exists in the plan.

This volume contains a map of Brazil, and of a vast tract of the continent of South America. It appears from the preface that Mr. S.'s former volume has been pirated in a very bare-faced manner in Paris by a Monsieur Alphonse de Beauchamp, a person abundantly notorious on the south side of the Channel both for taking similar liberties and for egregious misrepresentations of historical facts; and of whose work we have spoken in the Appendix to our eighty-fifth volume, p. 461.

ART. IV. *Letters from Illinois*, by Morris Birkbeck, Author of "Notes on a Tour through France," and of "Notes on a Journey in America," &c. 8vo. pp. 114. 5s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1818.

ART. V. *Journal of Travels in the United States of North America, and in Lower Canada*, performed in the Year 1817: containing Particulars relating to the Prices of Land and Provisions, Remarks on the Country and People, interesting Anecdotes, and an Account of the Commerce, Trade, and present State of Washington, New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, Albany, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, Lexington, Quebec, Montreal, &c. To which are added, a Description of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, and a Variety of other useful Information. With a coloured Map, delineating all the States and Territories. By John Palmer. 8vo. pp. 456. 12s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

OUR Number for February last gave our readers an early account of Mr. Birkbeck's "Notes on a Journey in America;" and we then expressed a wish to hear from him again, when his knowlege of the climate and country should be matured by longer experience. We did not, however, expect that this knowlege was to be obtained in the short period of five months; nor that the author could satisfy himself or his friends respecting the wisdom of removing his family so far into the western wilderness, before the sun had performed half his annual course, and shewn the new country in all the aspects which are presented by the different seasons. The sketch which Mr. Birkbeck gave us in the former work was drawn in a bold and masterly manner, and excited great interest from the nature of the objects presented to our view. An immeasurable wilderness, covered with gloomy forests, which were rapidly opening on every side before the genius of cultivation, — towns and villages rising almost instantaneously, — and the arts and comforts of social life, with the institutions of free and civilized men, spreading over countries recently the abode of wild beasts or tribes of as ferocious savages, — this is a picture which must be contemplated with pleasure by every liberal mind: but we have now to follow the author on a more humble excursion, viz. from Princeton, where he left us in his "Notes," to his estate on the Wabash, in order to take possession of his log-cabin. The journal of the *new settler* cannot be so interesting as that of the traveller: but many of Mr. Birkbeck's former readers will be desirous of knowing how the gentleman-farmer of old England will acquit himself in the character of an American *Back-wood's man.*

It must be observed that the log-cabin, to which Mr. B. introduces us, is only a preliminary to the erection of a more convenient house. The following letter gives a lively picture of his situation.

'My dear Sir, *Jan.* 17. 1818.

'I wrote to you early in September, since which I hope you have received a copy of my journal. Thus having made you of our party, I am now going to take you to the prairies, to shew you the very beginning of our settlement. Having fixed on the north-western portion of our prairie for our future residence and farm, the first act was building a cabin about two hundred yards from the spot where the house is to stand. This cabin is built of round straight logs about a foot in diameter, lying upon each other and notched in at the corners, forming a room eighteen feet long, by sixteen. The intervals between the logs are *chuncked,* that is, filled in with slips of wood, and *mudded,* or daubed with a plaster of mud: a spacious chimney, built also of logs, stands like a bastion at one end: the roof is well covered with four hundred *clap boards* of cleft oak. A hole is cut through the side, called very properly the door, for which there is a shutter of cleft oak, hung on wooden hinges. All this has been well executed by contract for twenty dollars. I have since added ten dollars to the cost for the luxury of a floor and ceiling of sawn boards, and it is now a comfortable habitation. — To this cabin you must accompany me and a young English friend with my boy Gillard.—We arrived in the evening, our horses heavily laden with our guns and provisions, and cooking utensils, and blankets, not forgetting the all important axe. This was immediately put in requisition, and we soon kindled a famous fire, before which we spread our pallets, and after a hearty supper soon forgot that besides ourselves, our horses, and our dogs, the wild animals of the forest were the only inhabitants of our wide domain. In the morning my boy and I sallied forth in quest of neighbours, having heard of two new settlements at no great distance.' [One of these neighbours, it appears, was distant two miles to the north-east, living in a cabin similar to his own and making the most of a rainy day by mending the shoes of his household. The other resided about the same distance to the south.] 'In our walk,' says Mr. B., 'we saw no game but partridges and a squirrel. We found plenty of grapes, which I thought delicious. The soil seemed to improve in fertility on closer inspection, and the country appeared more pleasant: in fact my mind was at ease, and this spreads a charm over external objects. Our township is a square of six miles each side, and what may be properly called our neighbourhood extends about six miles round this township in every direction. There are no very good mill-seats on the streams in our neighbourhood; but our prairie affords a most eligible site for a wind-mill. We are therefore going to erect one immediately. By the first of March I hope to have two ploughs at work, and may possibly put in one hundred acres of corn this spring.'

We have here the first foundation of this infant-establishment; to which, as it appears from other parts of these Letters, great numbers of emigrants are flocking, particularly of the labouring classes. After the privations unavoidable in a new establishment have been sustained, these people will have an encouraging prospect of reaping a rich harvest from their labours: but the extremes of temperature, experienced in every part of North America, must greatly increase the sufferings to be endured by the first settler, before convenient dwellings are erected. Though the winter, according to Mr. Birkbeck, is on the whole an agreeable season, he admits that they have '*some severe paroxysms of cold*' when the wind sets in from the north-west, the thermometer falling rapidly to seven or eight degrees below zero! When it is in other quarters, they have clear sunshine, the thermometer being frequently above 50° in the shade. 'Good roads, and good houses,' he says, 'are still wanting to render the winters of the Illinois pleasant. The sombre appearance of the forests, without a single evergreen to relieve the eye, and the total deficiency of verdure on the surface of the earth, give a doleful aspect to the scenery at this season. The natural turf, where the shade is not too deep to allow a turf to be formed, is composed chiefly of annual grasses, or of such as wither down to the roots in autumn: yet the perennial or the evergreen species, which clothe the rich pastures of more northern climates with perpetual verdure, thrive here to admiration when sown casually, and take entire possession of the soil, to the exclusion of indigenous grasses. Where the little caravans have encamped as they crossed the prairies, and have given their cattle hay made of the perennial grasses, there remains ever after a spot of green turf for the instruction and encouragement of future improvers.' This fact, Mr. Birkbeck thinks, is conclusive against the prevailing notion, that what are called the *natural grasses* are the best adapted to every soil and climate: indeed, almost all plants cultivated by man, and the grass-tribe in particular, such as wheat, barley, and oats, are every where exotics.

In March, Mr. B. says, 'As the spring comes on, our colony begins to assume a most encouraging aspect. Our friends are gathering around, and so far from being solitary, and doleful, and desolate, in this remote region, you must reverse all this to form any notion of our condition. The toil and difficulty, and even the dangers, attending removing a family from the hills of Surrey to the prairies of Illinois are considerable; and the responsibility is felt at every step a load upon the spirits of a father, for which his honest intentions are not at all times a sufficient counterpoise. To have passed through all this harmlessly, and even triumphantly, to have secured a retreat for ourselves, and then, turning our backs on care and anxiety, to be employed in smoothing the way and preparing a happy resting-place for other weary pilgrims, is an enjoyment I did not calculate upon when we quitted our old home.'

The passages which we have quoted contain an epitome of Mr. Birkbeck's present situation and future prospects. Several tables and estimates of the expence of land, travelling, and cultivation, will also be found in this little volume: but on these it would be useless to comment, as we apprehend that many of the items are deduced rather from conjecture than actual information, Mr. B. having been too short a time in the country to state his own experience of their accuracy. The estimate of the money required for the comfortable establishment of his family on '*English prairie*,' containing about 720 acres of wood-land and 720 of prairie, is 5500l. sterling, including the purchase-money of the estate.

In one letter, the author has expressed his wishes respecting the future state of religion in his colony, in a manner which, we learn, has given alarm and offence to some of his readers:

but we think that the alarm and the offence were groundless. It should be recollected that Mr. B. was educated among that sect of Christians who have a shivering aversion to *hired teachers* of religion; and that, whether paid by the government or the people, they are all considered as wolves in sheep's clothing, and children of the man of sin. With these feelings or prejudices instilled in early life, Mr. B. may fail to shew himself desirous of establishing regular preachers in his settlement without giving us reason to conclude that therefore he is an enemy of religion; an inference which, indeed, would be extremely unjust.

> 'When (says he) we have fixed ourselves to our minds in this world, what sort of garb think you we shall assume as candidates for the next? To my very soul I wish we may assume none but the character of men who desire to keep their conscience void of offence towards God and towards man; — *nil conscire sibi, nullâ pallescere culpâ.* We shall have people among us who will undertake to teach religion; the most arrogant of all pretensions I should be apt to call it, had not frequent observation convinced me that it has no necessary connection with arrogance of character.'

Mr. Birkbeck afterward informs us that he had already received communications on the subject of religious instruction. One came from a zealous Unitarian, who said that "he must have a church in the settlement, and will if he lives come to open it:" — to which the author replied, 'I have not a word to say to your proposal, dissuasive or encouraging. For myself, I am of no sect; and, in my view, those points by which sects are distinguished are generally quite unimportant, and might be discarded without affecting the interests of true religion.' From the tenor of these passages, we are led to think that, owing to his education among the Quakers, Mr. B. is disposed to undervalue the advantages which may be derived from regular public moral and religious instruction. In an infant-settlement, particularly, where the members must be widely dispersed, and the education of the children be in danger of being neglected from the difficulty of obtaining instructors, we should deem the establishment of some kind of social worship conducive to the comfort and improvement of the settlers, if it were practicable to introduce religion into the back-woods of America unattended by intolerance or fanaticism. There are periods in which every man of a feeling mind, however independent, has been more or less oppressed with the sense of desertion on a sudden though temporary separation from his friends. Left to solitude, or surrounded by those with whom he has no established sympathy, he feels as if he were alone in the universe, — an insulated being in the immensity of nature. Such an oppressive sense of desertion and insulation must frequently steal over the mind of the voluntary exile in the wilderness, in spite of his utmost efforts to repel it; and we think that nothing would more contribute to relieve and solace his spirits, than a regular meeting with his fellow-exiles to unite in cheerful social worship, in the presence of the common Father of all the families of the earth.

The author gives some curious instances of the state of the administration of justice in the back-settlements, which are yet scarcely brought under the controul of the laws. Much intrepidity of mind and hardihood of body are indispensable requisites among the learned brethren of the long robe. 'Brass for the face will not suffice, they must be steel all over.' We are informed that the Judge and the counsel were working their way in February to the next county-town, through trackless woods, over snow and ice, with the thermometer at zero. In one day, *his Honour* swam his horse seven times, and had to dry his clothes on his back by turning round and round before a blazing fire, preparatory to a night's lodging on a cabin-floor, wrapped up in a blanket, — the only robe used here by the profession. In some cases, even, the venerable Judge is compelled to perform the office of thief-taker, or to execute summary justice on those who resist.

Though the present little volume is by no means destitute of interest, we think that it has failed in its object of conveying useful information to the English farmer who may intend to emigrate to the Illinois. Before a plough had been moved, or a seed put into the ground, it was surely too soon for Mr. B. to judge of the advantages or inconveniences attending the culture of a new and untried situation, When he favours the public with another volume of Letters from the Illinois, we trust that he will be prepared to give a full account of the result of his agricultural labours from his own experience; if not, the motto which he has chosen, "*vox clamantis e deserto*," will be retorted by the old proverb, "*much cry and little wool.*"

Mr. John Palmer, author of the other volume now before us, belongs to a class of travellers who run rapidly through a country, and see the surfaces of things; write down in their journals the number of inhabitants in a town, with that of the streets and houses; note whether the latter are made of wood, brick, or stone; and gain besides as much knowlege of the state of society as they can obtain in a tavern or a stage-coach. On their return, all these memoranda are written out, and sent to the printer: but, finding that the materials are too scanty to fill a decent octavo, they supply the latter half of the volume with extracts from "Guides" and "Gazetteers." Mr. Palmer very candidly informs us, in the preface, that such has been his method of book-making: yet still his work may be found useful to those for whom it was principally intended. He observes that, 'from the extraordinary pressure of the times, many are turning their attention to the new world, and information to these has been my first study.' He appears to be free from affectation or prejudice, without partialities to any one state or territory, arising from having become a proprietor of land; and we give him full credit when he asserts that 'he is not conscious of having deviated in his description from the real state of things.'

Mr. P. landed at New York in May 1817. In this city, 'what struck him most' (he says) 'were the wooden houses, the smallness but neatness of the churches, the coloured people, the custom of smoking segars, and the number and nuisance of the pigs permitted to be at large.' From New York he proceeded to Philadelphia. At Bustletown, ten miles to the north of the latter city, he visited a friend, from whom he obtained some information, which we give as the most full account of farming-practice contained in the present volume.

Farms in the neighbourhood seldom exceed 200 acres; the price of the best farms, with a good stone-house and offices, is 100 to 120 dollars per acre; rent, from four to eight dollars per acre. The grain-crops, on account of their rapid growth, are seldom choaked with weeds; and it is common to get a crop of buck-wheat after other grain. Fencing, with post and rail, four feet high, costs one dollar for twelve feet. The manure is dung, plaister (gypsum), or lime. Little machinery is used, most of the work being done by manual labour. The price of a labourer is from 12 to 20 dollars per month, and his board. The horses are middle-sized, but hardy: a team of four is worth 400 dollars. For horse-food, some of the farmers use rye coarsely ground, and mixed with cut straw; and a handful of salt is given to them once or twice in a week, of which they are extravagantly fond, and which is considered as of the greatest use. Sheep are kept, but in small flocks. Pigs are abundant, and of a good sort, and are worth ten or twelve dollars per cwt. The rearing of poultry for the Philadelphia market is an universal practice. Taxes of all sorts on farms in Philadelphia county do not exceed more than ne penny in the pound sterling. The produce and price of naize and grain are,

		Dollars.	Cents.	
Wheat,	16 to 20 bushels per acre,	2	0	per bushel.
Barley,	little grown.			
Oats,	30 to 40 - - -	0	50	
Rye,	20 — 30 - -	1	25	
Maize,	30 — 40 - - -	1	0	
Clover,	1½ — 2 tons - -	25 to 30 dollars per ton.		

Wheat is sold by the bushel, which is considered to weigh 0 pounds. The farmer cannot resort to any regular cornxchange, but must carry his grain in bulk to market, or ell it to a neighbouring merchant or miller, which he can lways readily do, at a market-price. The country is gently ndulated; the soil, a clay, mixed with sand.

The route which Mr. P. took was from Philadelphia to altimore and Washington, and thence to Pittsburg; at the atter place, he embarked on the Ohio and descended to Cininnati; whence, on his return, he crossed Kentucky, entered he eastern states in Virginia, passed through Maryland and ancaster county, proceeded to New York and Boston, and rom the latter place made an excursion into Canada, whence e returned to New York, and took his passage to England n October. The time in which these travels were performed as about five months, from his landing to his departure. We shall notice some of his observations that appear most ntitled to attention.

On the road from Baltimore to George-town, Mr. P. had n opportunity of seeing what is rather a rare occurrence n that part of America; viz. the visit of a swarm of locusts. t seems that these visits are periodical; for Carver, in his traels, says that they appear once in seven years, but Mr. P. as informed that they came in the greatest quantities once n seventeen years. Carver farther states that they do much njury: but in this remark, Mr. P. says, 'he greatly errs: we aw them several hundred miles, and never heard a complaint f their injuring the grasses or grain; certain trees are faourites with them, on and around which they swarm, making buzzing to be heard a great way off. I believe they deposit heir eggs at the end of the branches, destroying about six nches of the extremity, which is all the mischief they do. *ndeed I do not believe they eat at all!* as I have examined rees and shrubs on which they hung very thick, and never aw any of the leaves perforated. If they eat, it must be very ttle indeed, as the myriads we saw were sufficient to strip he forests and fields of every green thing. They last about six weeks, and then disappear.' Mr. P. remarks that they are in size and appearance exactly like, if not the same as, the English cock-chaffer.

The description of the western parts of Pennsylvania, and of the country round Pittsburg, agrees in the main facts with that which was given by Mr. Birkbeck: but, as his progress westward was along the Ohio, Mr. Palmer had little opportunity of seeing the state of the country until he arrived at Cincinnati, which is situated 522 miles below Pittsburg, by the course of the river. Cincinnati is the wonder of the western world, and will probably be one of the largest cities in America at no distant period. The general appearance of the town, we are told, is clean, handsome, and indeed elegant; forty years ago, it was the resort of Indians; and the whole surrounding country was a wilderness, full of wild beasts and savages. The number of public buildings and dwellings is from 1300 to 1400; of inhabitants, 8000, all whites: the laws of Ohio prohibiting slavery, and even the settlement of free negroes in the state, except in certain cases. About 400 houses are built of stone or brick, many of them three stories high, and in a modern style. The public edifices are of brick, and would ornament an European city. The price of land for building, or what the author calls *town-lots*, is extremely dear in the principal streets; not less than 200 dollars per foot, measuring on the front-line: but how far the lots extend backwards we are not told. Land near the town sells for 200 dollars per acre. Numerous manufactures are established already, and in a thriving state; and very extensive commerce is carried on, by means of river-navigation, with Pittsburg, New Orleans, and all the western states, and by waggons with the interior. The inhabitants, we are told, dress much in the English fashion: gentlemen, and many tradesmen, wearing superfine cloth coats; and the ladies dressing elegantly in muslins. The manners of the inhabitants are described as social and refined, without that jealousy of foreigners which sometimes appears among the interested and ignorant in the eastern states.

While the author staid at Cincinnati, he had an opportunity of seeing the anniversary of American independence, which was celebrated on the 4th of July. At eleven o'clock, three companies of volunteers assembled, and, accompanied by many of the citizens, two and two, marched in procession to the Presbyterian church, the band playing *Hail, Columbia*; *Yankee Doodle*, &c. The church was crowded; and numbers of well dressed females occupied the front seats. The ceremony commenced with an appropriate prayer and psalm;

then the declaration of independence, as made by the colonists, was read: after which an impressive national hymn was sung by the whole congregation, the chorus repeated at the end of each stanza being

"Fathers, sires, heroes brave,
Who fought and bled for liberty!
The heavenly boon we swear to save
While freedom has a votary."

When the enthusiasm excited by this hymn had subsided, an orator stept forth, having the national flag on one side, and a decorated cap of liberty on the other. His manner and language were rhetorical; and he dwelt on the mild laws, the liberty, plenty, and comforts which, in common with their fellow-citizens, the inhabitants of Cincinnati experienced: observing what a delightful sight it was to behold men of all nations united as a band of brothers to rejoice, and praise the Almighty for the free government and numerous blessings which they happily enjoyed. After the church-service, the citizens, and any strangers who desired to join them, adjourned to a good dinner, and the day was concluded with conviviality. A similar ceremony takes place on the same day in every town and village in the United States; the largest church in the place, of whatever religion may be its congregation, being used by permission for the occasion.—Mr. P. says that 'the climate of Cincinnati is healthy, if we may judge from the appearance of the inhabitants:' but, according to Mr. Birkbeck, one part of the city is built too near the river, is liable to be overflowed, and is in consequence swampy and unhealthy.

Two weekly newspapers are published, each of which sells about 1500 copies. The market-days are four in a week, and the markets are well supplied with all kinds of provisions. Theft is very rare: we boarded, says Mr. P., in the heart of the town, and the doors were mostly open by night as well as by day.

The state of Ohio, according to the short account furnished by Mr. P., who made only a few excursions into it from Cincinnati, and according to the more full description of Mr. Birkbeck in his "Notes," appears to contain more attractions and means of comfort than any of the States west of the Alleghany mountains: but we mean to confine this remark to those who have not lost all relish for civilized life and social intercourse. That part of the state of Ohio which is situated between the two Miamis, reaching from Cincinnati northward to Lake Erie, is already populous; and

Mr. P. says that it will soon be the best settled and most flourishing in the whole state.

Mr. Palmer gives a brief account of the state of Kentucky, through which he passed. In 1817, Lexington the capital contained 6000 inhabitants. Many of the houses are good: the stores and shops are numerous, and well supplied with domestic and foreign commodities: it includes several banks, (one, a branch from the United States,) three Presbyterian churches, one Episcopalian, one Catholic, and one Methodistic. A new college is just erected, 150 feet by 50: but of its professors or students, or of the plan of the institution, Mr. P. gives no account. It has also a public academy, a Lancasterian school, and several other well regulated schools. In 1773, this city was but a hunter's camp. The land around is described as extremely fertile, and the scenery beautiful; and to those emigrants who do not object to negro-slavery, Mr. P. recommends it as an eligible country. Farms within five miles of the town can be purchased at 40 or 50 dollars per acre, with *suitable* houses and offices. The morals of the people, wherever negro-slavery is admitted, are more or less corrupted by it; and prostitution among the women of colour in Lexington is more general than in any other part of the western states.

The latter part of this volume is occupied by extracts from American publications, and statistical tables.

The following statement of the salaries of the principal officers of the federal government we would recommend to be printed in large letters, and hung in the principal offices of every government in Europe:

		Dollars.	
President	per annum	25,000	(5625l.)
Vice-President	ditto	5,000	(1125l.)
Secretary of State	ditto	5,000	
——— the Treasury	ditto	5,000	
——— War	ditto	4,500	
——— the Navy	ditto	4,500	
Ministers Plenipotentiary	ditto	9,000	(1822l. 10s.)
Member of Congress, per day,		8	

The interest, which any information respecting the United States derives from the present condition of Europe, has induced us to devote so large a portion of our review to these travels; and in a subsequent Number we shall have to report the contents of some other recent publications. Many thousand families have lately emigrated to the western world, and many more are looking to it as a place of refuge from the miseries of poverty. A smaller portion, dissatisfied with the course of events in Europe, regard America as the land of liberty; and a few capitalists consider it as the country in which their money can be employed with the greatest profit. The rulers of the old world are also viewing America with an anxious and jealous eye. Indeed, a nation advancing with unexampled strides to greatness and power, with scarcely any expence in the management of its government, and with none in support of a national church, — yet well governed, and religious, — is a picture which the "legitimate" rulers and established hierarchies in Europe cannot contemplate with much complacency. "The night of darkness is far spent, and the day is at hand." It is no longer possible to hide from the people in the different countries of Europe, how well and how cheaply the Americans are governed, how few taxes they have to pay, and how amply they can support their families by their own labour. We trust that the dawnings of this light have not been disregarded by the governors of the old world; and we hope they begin to perceive that the only way to satisfy their subjects, and keep them contentedly at home, is to improve their condition. The hard earnings collected by the hand of labour must not ever be forcibly wrested from it, by the tax-gatherer, to support foreign wars and foreign interests, in which the people have no concern. If this practice be longer continued, in vain may the mighty potentates enter into an "holy alliance" to stifle the voice of discontent by their united efforts; a general feeling of indignation will burst forth, and prevent them from trampling on the rights and insulting the common sense of mankind.

Art. VI. *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.* Canto the Fourth. By Lord Byron. 8vo. pp. 257. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

Art. VII. *Historical Illustrations of the Fourth Canto of Childe Harold:* containing Dissertations on the Ruins of Rome, and an Essay on Italian Literature, by John Hobhouse, Esq. of Trinity College, Cambridge, M. A. and F. R. S. Second Edition, revised and corrected. 8vo. pp. 576. 14s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

We have at length to congratulate our readers on the completion of Childe Harold's Pilgrimage. On former occasions, we received great pleasure from attending the noble wanderer through Spain, Greece, and Swisserland: he now closes his career in Italy; and this last canto is filled with animated descriptions of the scenery and the principal objects of curiosity in that beautiful and interesting country. Venice, Florence, and Rome are his chief resting-places. The picture of Venice, with which the canto commences, is drawn in deep and sombre colours; and, though it is interspersed with gleams of antient pride and stateliness, with momentary glances of the magnificence which once centered in that spot, the whole canvass breathes a melancholy grandeur. It expresses the lamentation of a wandering spirit over a city shorn of its honours, spoiled of its triumphs, bereft of its liberty, and even its antient pageant discontinued, but still in the midst of ruin and degradation overhung with the canopy and the tattered yet glittering trophies of its better days. We must observe, however, that parts of the description are tinged with that obscurity, and that exaggeration, which are to be numbered among the great blemishes of Lord Byron's poetry. Such obscurity, indeed, on such an occasion, may be less offensive, and perhaps less immediately perceptible, from the gloom and the cloudy reverie into which the objects presented on every side naturally hurry the imagination of the reader. The lines on Tasso and on his patron we cannot but consider as disgusting; and if the poet, who when in Swisserland seemed so fondly to associate his spirit with the ardent and enthusiastic soul of Rousseau, has in Italy by the sympathy of genius identified himself with Tasso, we fear that his vehement and indignant invective against the sensuality and unfeeling pride of the Duke of Ferrara may have been written with an allusion, which it would be but little respectful or decorous in us to pursue.

We are much better pleased with the noble author's remarks on Petrarch; and with his description of Arqua, the little hamlet where that interesting compound of a lover, a poet, and a philosopher, passed the decline of his years in peaceful retirement. The writer's reverence for genius soon draws him on to that source of mighty spirits, Florence, the birth-place of Dante and Machiavelli, and the cradle of "the starry Galileo;" and here it is not to be apprehended that a bard so zealous and so ardent should fail to give us a glowing description of the Venus de Medici. His remarks, indeed, breathe forth the soul of an enraptured enthusiast; and we believe that no pious votary, when that goddess was deemed a real existence, and that statue was contemplated as an object of devout admiration, was ever filled with deeper sensations of her divine loveliness. Before he proceeds to Rome, the lake of Thrasymene attracts his notice; and we have an awful description of that day of slaughter when Hannibal defeated the Romans, and both armies were insensible to the earthquake that shook the ground on which they stood during the conflict, and occasioned not merely alarm but even destruction in the neighbouring district. We cannot forbear to extract the passage :

' And such the storm of battle on this day,
And such the phrenzy, whose convulsion blinds
To all save carnage, that, beneath the fray,
An earthquake reel'd unheededly away!
None felt stern Nature rocking at his feet,
And yawning forth a grave for those who lay
Upon their bucklers for a winding sheet;
Such is the absorbing hate when warring nations meet!

' The earth to them was as a rolling bark
Which bore them to eternity; they saw
The ocean round, but had no time to mark
The motions of their vessel; Nature's law,
In them suspended, reck'd not of the awe
Which reigns when mountains tremble, and the birds
Plunge in the clouds for refuge and withdraw
From their down-toppling nests; and bellowing herds
Stumble o'er heaving plains, and man's dread hath no words.*

' Far other scene is Thrasimene now;
Her lake a sheet of silver, and her plain
Rent by no ravage save the gentle plough.'

The stanzas on Clitumnus, which immediately follow, are written with much delicacy: but we are scarcely soothed to gentleness and composure, before we find ourselves carried on with a sort of frantic impetuosity by the following over-wrought, perhaps, but most earnest and vivid description of Velino, which in its close melts again into a tone of exquisite sweetness.

' The roar of waters!—from the headlong height
Velino cleaves the wave-worn precipice;
The fall of waters! rapid as the light
The flashing mass foams shaking the abyss;
The hell of waters! where they howl and hiss,
And boil in endless torture; while the sweat
Of their great agony, wrung out from this
Their Phlegethon, curls round the rocks of jet
That gird the gulf around, in pitiless horror set,

' And mounts in spray the skies and thence again
Returns in an unceasing shower, which round,
With its unemptied cloud of gentle rain,
Is an eternal April to the ground,
Making it all one emerald:—how profound
The gulf! and how the giant element
From rock to rock leaps with delirious bound,
Crushing the cliffs, which, downward worn and rent
With his fierce footsteps, yield in chasms a fearful vent

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* We need not remark on the faults of this line, which every reader will find it sufficiently difficult to enunciate.

'To the broad column which rolls on, and shows
More like the fountain of an infant sea
Torn from the womb of mountains by the throes
Of a new world, than only thus to be
Parent of rivers, which flow gushingly,
With many windings, through the vale: — Look back!
Lo! where it comes like an eternity,
As if to sweep down all things in its track,
Charming the eye with dread, — a matchless cataract,

'Horribly beautiful! but on the verge,
From side to side, beneath the glittering morn,
An Iris sits, amidst the infernal surge,
Like Hope upon a death-bed, and, unworn
Its steady dyes, while all round is torn
By the distracted waters, bears serene
Its brilliant hues with all their beams unshorn:
Resembling, 'mid the torture of the scene,
Love watching Madness with unalterable mien.'

Lord Byron's general remarks on the first appearance of fallen Rome, on the 'Titanic skeleton' lying spread out before him in uncouth and crumbling vastness, strike us as being remarkably laboured. The stanzas (as in the preceding extract) are drawn into one another, the sentences are stretched out and dislocated, and the whole composition is more deficient in interest and effect than any other part of the canto. In much of the description, also, as in the stanza on the Palatine Hill, an accumulation of mere names of external objects is heaped together in chaos, following one another too rapidly to suggest any images; and the lines immediately succeeding that stanza convey an expression of sentiments so hurried and contradictory, that nothing is left on the mind but a confusion of terms. In his delineation of the grand relics of antient art at Rome, the noble poet has been much happier; though even here much inequality is to be observed. The stanzas on the Roman daughter, though at last strained to a lamentable degree of exaggeration, comment with real warmth on that beautiful spectacle of filial affection and devotedness; and the heart of that reader must be somewhat insensible, which does not for the moment glow with sentiments in unison with the following pathetic and proud exclamation:

—— 'No; he shall not expire
While in those warm and lovely veins the fire
Of health and holy feeling can provide
Great Nature's Nile, whose deep stream rises higher
Than Egypt's river: — from that gentle side
Drink, drink and live, old man! Heaven's realm holds no
such tide.'

The sentiments suggested by the tomb of Cecilia Metella have but little peculiarity, and are too much dilated. We must remark, too, that we should feel great hesitation in admitting that the poet has justly depicted the feelings indicated by the countenance and posture of the Dying Gladiator: while, in speaking of the Apollo Belvidere, we think that he has in vain attempted to surpass what has before been written by others. Nothing, however, can exceed the truth of the short description of the Laocoon:

> ' Or turning to the Vatican, go see
> Laocoon's torture dignifying pain—
> A father's love and mortal's agony
> With an immortal's patience blending:—Vain
> The struggle; vain, against the coiling strain
> And gripe, and deepening of the dragon's grasp,
> The old man's clench; the long envenomed chain
> Rivets the living links,—the enormous asp
> Enforces pang on pang, and stifles gasp on gasp.'

Lord B. has most admirably described the different feelings impressed on the spectator by the simplicity of the Pantheon, and by the magnificence and grandeur of St. Peter's in that vastness

> ' Which grows, but grows to harmonize
> All musical in its immensities.'

These buildings, indeed, are themselves a grand illustration of the difference not only between classical and modern architecture, but between the characters of antient and those of modern religion in Europe. We refrain, however, from extracting Lord Byron's remarks on these stupenduous structures, in order that we may have room for the beautiful description of Egeria, which we would not injure by any partial extract; and which, on account of its length, we intentionally reserved for this late place in our report. In the original context, it is very happily introduced after an eulogy on Rienzi by a passing comparison of that extraordinary man with Numa.

> ' Egeria! sweet creation of some heart
> Which found no mortal resting-place so fair
> As thine ideal breast; whate'er thou art
> Or wert,—a young Aurora of the air,
> The nympholepsy of some fond despair;
> Or, it might be, a beauty of the earth,
> Who found a more than common votary there
> Too much adoring; whatsoe'er thy birth,
> Thou wert a beautiful thought, and softly bodied forth.
>
> ' The mosses of thy fountain still are sprinkled
> With thine Elysian water-drops; the face
> Of thy cave-guarded spring, with years unwrinkled,
> Reflects the meek-eyed genius of the place,

Whose green, wild margin now no more erase
Art's works; nor must the delicate waters sleep,
Prisoned in marble, bubbling from the base
Of the cleft statue, with a gentle leap
The rill runs o'er, and round, fern, flowers, and ivy, creep,

'Fantastically tangled; the green hills
Are clothed with early blossoms, through the grass
The quick-eyed lizard rustles, and the bills
Of summer-birds sing welcome as ye pass;
Flowers fresh in hue, and many in their class,
Implore the pausing step, and with their dyes
Dance in the soft breeze in a fairy mass;
The sweetness of the violet's deep blue eyes,
Kiss'd by the breath of heaven, seems coloured by its skies.

'Here didst thou dwell, in this enchanted cover,
Egeria! thy all heavenly bosom beating
For the far footsteps of thy mortal lover;
The purple Midnight veil'd that mystic meeting
With her most starry canopy, and seating
Thyself by thine adorer, what befel?
This cave was surely shaped out for the greeting
Of an enamour'd goddess, and the cell
Haunted by holy Love — the earliest oracle!

'And didst thou not, thy breast to his replying,
Blend a celestial with a human heart;
And Love, which dies as it was born, in sighing,
Share with immortal transports? could thine art
Make them indeed immortal, and impart
The purity of heaven to earthly joys,
Expel the venom and not blunt the dart —
The dull satiety which all destroys —
And root *from out* the soul the deadly weed which cloys?'

After his meditations amid the ruins of Rome, Lord Byron has scarely prepared to lay aside his assumed character, and to cast off his pilgrim-weeds, before he is reminded of the great calamity which his own country has sustained in the loss of the Princess Charlotte and her infant; on which occasion he indulges himself in some beautiful and pathetic remarks on the disappointment of the nation's hopes, and on the dejection and loneliness of the afflicted husband. The poem closes with contemplations on the Ocean, written with a vehemence and grandeur of spirit which are not perhaps exceeded by any part of the work. We have not space to transcribe the whole, but we give the ensuing stanzas in proof of our opinion:

'There is a pleasure in the pathless woods,
There is a rapture on the lonely shore,
There is society, where none intrudes,
By the deep Sea, and music in its roar:

I love not Man the less, but Nature more,
From these our interviews, in which I steal
From all I may be, or have been before,
To mingle with the Universe, and feel
What I can ne'er express, yet can not all conceal.

'Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean — roll!
Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain;
Man marks the earth with ruin — his control
Stops with the shore; — upon the watery plain
The wrecks are all thy deed, nor doth remain
A shadow of man's ravage, save his own,
When, for a moment, like a drop of rain,
He sinks into thy depths with bubbling groan,
Without a grave, unknell'd, uncoffin'd, and unknown.' —

'Thou glorious mirror, where the Almighty's form
Glasses itself in tempests; in all time,
Calm or convuls'd — in breeze, or gale, or storm,
Icing the pole, or in the torrid clime
Dark-heaving; — boundless, endless, and sublime —
The image of Eternity — the throne
Of the Invisible; even *from out* thy slime
The monsters of the deep are made; each zone
Obeys thee: thou goest forth, dread, fathomless, alone.'

Ve have intentionally passed over several passages in
:h Lord Byron has alluded to his own domestic circum-
ces, and particularly a long and elaborate invocation to
nesis. Although the figure of an afflicted and almost dis-
ted being, moping in his moody vein in the very centre
uins and desolation, must in any case have its solemn im-
siveness, the circumstances of the present poet do not lead
imagination into the same train of reflections which ab-
the soul in contemplating Marius at Carthage. We
also, as far as we were able, avoided to extract any of
e stanzas in which the sentiments expressed are so en-
y in discord with the objects delineated, that we almost
ect the affectation of singularity to have been one mate-
ingredient in the history of their composition. Lord
on seems not to be aware that the popularity of his early
ns was, in a great degree, owing to the strong contrast which
bore to the mawkish sentimentality and vapid whinings of
ferent race of verse-writers, with whom the public had been
ntly nauseated. The truth is, however, that the manly and
pendent spirit which they breathed was so justly admired,
much indulgence was shewn to his gloomy and con-
ptuous invectives against society, and aspersions on human
ire; because they were supposed merely to indicate that
ppointment which every generous mind for a while feels

when the fond day-dreams and romantic illusions of early youth are first dispersed; and because they were regarded as the effusions of that *ennui* which the follies and excesses of fashionable dissipation will always impress on a being who was born for better things. The author, however, unfortunately imagined that peculiarities, which were tolerated for the excellences that seemed to accompany them, were in themselves the object of admiration, and that the public entertained a curiosity and a personal interest in the excentricities of his character; and he has since on many occasions, when the description of his real feelings was exhausted, appeared to find no difficulty in at once gratifying his *amour propre* and indulging his invention by exaggeration and extravagance. We are aware that this is a severe impeachment of his good sense; and that to many persons who are initiated in his poetry it will sound as a very precarious vindication of his affections or of his judgment: — but on what other principle can we account for several of his fantastic sallies? What is there, for instance, in the appearance of the Roman Daughter to suggest any mention of Cain? Or must not that be a strangely perverted imagination, which, in reflecting on the Lake of Nemi, can be reminded by its beautiful form of a snake coiled up in itself; or can fancy that its still and placid surface recalls the insensibility of settled hate? The banished Duke, in "As you Like it," moralized with more humanity; and even the melancholy of Jaques, though picked up in travels and strangely compounded, was of very different stuff from this, which borders more on the sullenness and misanthropy of the prodigal lord of Athens. Even the mention of Petrarch and solitude hurries on this strange soliloquist to reflections as uncomfortable, and to objects as hideous, as any that could be presented to his imagination if he were watching over the death-bed agonies of Cardinal Beaufort.

After having said thus much of the fourth canto, it may be expected from us to give our opinion on the general character of the pilgrimage of Childe Harold, now that it is complete. It is a descriptive poem, written in a sort of epic language: without story, progression of passions, or gradation of incidents. The same solitary person stalks about: sometimes, in fits of sullen misanthropy, investing even the beautiful objects of nature with his perverted feelings; sometimes lulled by the charms of external nature into a momentary forgetfulness of the world of man, and won from the empire of his own morbid humours into a reverie on all that is lovely and fair. Of his style of moralizing, we think that his night-thoughts on contemplation and solitude, early in the second canto, are sufficiently characteristic to be recognized as those of Lord Byron, and at the same time are written in his freest and happiest manner. His mere descriptions are composed with great truth, but occasionally with a minuteness, with an indiscriminate and mechanical exactness, which must impair their interest. How tiresome a description may be rendered by such exactness, any person who has looked into Crabbe's productions will easily apprehend. — Of simple and pleasing reflection, interspersed amid views of scenery, nothing can be more interesting or lovely than a great part of the third canto, and that passage on Egeria which we have extracted from the fourth. Of grand and elevated sentiments, we have some specimens in the second canto; as in the invocation of the spirit of antient Greece: — but the remark made on Collins may be applied, we think, with great justice to Lord Byron, that sublimity is rather the character of his inclination than of his genius. On many grand occasions, he exhibits a great restlessness and gasping; a struggle, as it were, towards some higher range of thought, which often ends in a repetition of the same idea in different terms, or in mere bombast and tumour of phrase. Even in that noble passage near the close of the fourth canto, part of which we have extracted, his fancy seems to be principally impressed with the hugeness and the might of the ocean, as if it were some untameable and savage monster that played with human power as a bauble: rather than as an element which, from an immensity of years, has been rolling its fathomless billows in obedience to some superior laws, and in harmony with the rest of the creation; and which, in its wildest buffetings, amid its loudest and most tempestuous uproar, still listens to some more than human voice whose sovereign influence wields its vastness and quells its fury.

Of the style of composition in this poem, it may be remarked that the general blemish is that it is too artificial. The account of the maid of Sarragoza in the first canto is as elaborate in structure as if it had been composed by one of those declaimers of antiquity, who for a trial of skill stationed every word in antithesis, and had all the clauses in a period balanced against each other with critical exactness. So again the reflections on a skull, which occur in another part of the same canto, are decked out in such laced and stately language, that we can scarcely recognize our favourite Hamlet's church-yard meditations in their strange disguise. Much more ease and simplicity, however, prevail in the third than in any of the other cantos: though the instances of extravagance of diction, such as 'their dust is immortality;'

tality,' and the 'desert' of Italy 'surpasses other realms in fertility,' are innumerable. The author's attempts at a humourous turn, whether in his own notes, where it is more frequently introduced, or in his poetry, are not very successful: while his antiquarians crying out 'Eureka,' and his 'crown hight foolscap,' with many such phrases, may excite a smile, but surely not of approbation.

In many respects, Lord Byron may be considered as holding the same station in our national poetry which Gibbon has obtained in our prose. Their style is not according to old English directness of phrase, than which in our opinion nothing better can be substituted. With regard also to labour and research, little as such qualities might be expected from the spirited air of both these authors, we must remark that Gibbon is known to have been indefatigable; and we cannot help thinking that Lord Byron, in his closet, and in moments not much observed by others, indulges in a minuteness of investigation and of scrutiny which is not always bestowed by votaries of the muses. Few authors can be named whose trains of thought can be more directly traced to various sources than these two, and still fewer who have so entirely appropriated what they have borrowed: for the native force of genius has enabled them to impart the air of novelty and originality to the entire body of their compositions. The result of long elaboration, and of a tedious fermentation of the intellect, is by both of them thrown forth in one mass of vivid conception, somewhat wrenched indeed by such Sibylline throes, but imbued with the fire of a master-spirit. Both, in their usual march and on the most ordinary occasions, support a certain degree of stateliness; and in their boldest elevations neither of them is entirely destitute of artifice and turgidity.

Mr. Hobhouse's 'Illustrations' now call for our attention. —It was the good fortune of Pope to have a commentator who was as much superior to himself in genius as he was inferior in plain practical sense: who could give a Pindaric turn to his humblest lines, discover a condensation of thought which the author had never suspected, and translate mere words of transition into pregnant hints and suggestions fraught with wisdom. Warburton threw about him, wherever he went, the atmosphere of poetry, and impressed on every thing that he touched the mark of his own elevated and sublime genius. He was disdainful of all borrowed learning, and disregarded even to a faulty excess the humble helps which philology may sometimes supply to criticism. It is the fate of Lord Byron, however, to be accompanied by one who can dilute and reduce his poetry to the humblest prose; who can resolve his most ambitious epithets and his boldest combinations; who can run back the chain of his thoughts, and bring every thing to its elementary principles, to the first crude and embryo forms. Mr. Hobhouse has caught every opportunity of shewing the knowlege which he could collect from dictionaries, lexicons, &c.: he has seized and mangled Lord Byron's common-place book; and he has poured forth on the reader a deluge of hints, which in the slumber of the scrutoire, and as materials for thought, might be serviceable to the author, and were entirely unobjectionable: but these envelopes and crudities should not have been pushed forth into the world; and of all names that could be devised, this chaos should not have been termed 'Illustrations.' As a specimen of Mr. Hobhouse's dictionary-hunting, we would refer the reader, who may have curiosity enough for the task, to his remarks on lightning, appended to the fourth canto, which occupy three or four pages; and his observations on Julius Cæsar will at once supply a notion of the novelty of his conceptions. To give an idea of the information in arts and antiquities that may be gained from his notes, as well as of the elegance of his style, we copy a short passage relative to the statue of Pompey:

'The projected division of the Spada Pompey has already been recorded by the historian of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Mr. Gibbon found it in the memorials of Flaminius Vacca, and it may be added to his mention of it that Pope Julius III. gave the contending owners five hundred crowns for the statue; and presented it to Cardinal Capo di Ferro, who had prevented the judgment of Solomon from being executed upon the image. In a more civilized age this statue was exposed to an actual operation: for the French who acted the Brutus of Voltaire in the Coliseum, resolved that their Cæsar should fall at the base of that Pompey, which was supposed to have been sprinkled with the blood of the original dictator. The nine-foot hero was therefore removed to the Arena of the amphitheatre, and to facilitate its transport suffered the temporary amputation of its right arm. The republican tragedians had to plead that the arm was a restoration: but their accusers do not believe that the integrity of the statue would have protected it. The love of finding every coincidence has discovered the true Cæsarean ichor in a stain near the right knee; but colder criticism has rejected not only the blood but the portrait, and assigned the globe of power rather to the first of the emperors than to the last of the republican masters of Rome. Winkelmann is loth to allow an heroic statue of a Roman citizen, but the Grimani Agrippa, a cotemporary almost, is heroic; and naked Roman figures were only very rare, not absolutely forbidden. The face accords much better with the "*hominem integrum et castum et gravem,*" than with any of the busts of Augustus, and is too stern for him who was beautiful, says Suetonius, at all periods of his life. The pretended likeness to Alexander the Great cannot be discerned, but the traits resemble the medal of Pompey. The objectionable globe may not have been an ill applied flattery to him who found Asia Minor the boundary, and left it the centre of the Roman empire. It seems that Winkelmann has made a mistake in thinking that no proof of the identity of this statue, with that which received the bloody sacrifice, can be derived from the spot where it was discovered. Flaminius Vacca says *sotto una cantina*, and this cantina is known to have been in the Vicolo de' Leutari near the Cancellaria, a position corresponding exactly to that of the Janus before the basilica of Pompey's theatre, to which Augustus transferred the statue after the *curia* was either burnt, or taken down. Part of the Pompeian shade, the portico, existed in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and the *atrium* was still called *Satrum.* So says Blondus. At all events, so imposing is the stern majesty of the statue, and so memorable is the story, that the play of the imagination leaves no room for the exercise of the judgment, and the fiction, if a fiction it is, operates on the spectator with an effect not less powerful than truth.' *

We know not any work written in the time of James the First that betrayed a style of more ludicrous affectation. Mr. Hobhouse seems to have endeavoured to exemplify in his own prose his character of Parini's poetry; where, by a slight mistake respecting the nature of Parini's excellence, as well as the import of an injunction of Horace, he says that Parini followed the rule of Horace which inculcates the sacrifice of every thought, however noble, that is found incapable of embellishment; and that he renounced the adoption of those beauties which vulgar readers are apt to call natural, but which in fact are obvious and common-place. — The degree of valuable instruction which may be derived from Mr. Hobhouse's discretion and good sense in political matters may perhaps be conjectured from the following remarks:

'We have heard too much of the turbulence of the Roman democracy and of the Augustan virtues. No civil tranquillity can compensate for that perpetual submission, not to laws but persons, which must be required from the subjects of the most limited monarchy. The citizens of the worst regulated republic must feel a pride and may indulge a hope superior to all the blessings of domestic peace, and of what is called established order, another word for durable servitude. The struggles for supreme though temporary power amongst those of an equal condition, give birth to all the nobler energies of the mind, and find space for their unbounded exertion. Under a monarchy, however well attempered, the chief motive for action must be altogether wanting, or feebly felt, or cautiously encouraged. Duties purely ministerial, honours derived from an individual, may be meritoriously performed, may be gracefully worn: but, as an object of ambition, they are infinitely below the independent controul of our fellow-citizens, and perhaps scarcely furnish a compensation for entire repose. The natural love of distinction on any terms may push us into public life; but it palsies our efforts, it mortifies our success, perpetually to feel that in such a career, although a failure is disgraceful, a victory is inglorious;

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* This note occurs at the end of the fourth canto of Childe Harold: but Lord Byron, in his dedication of the work to Mr. Hobhouse, says that he has been indebted for the notes to that gentleman.

" *Vincere inglorium —atteri sordidum.*"

These are the sentiments of Agricola and the words of Tacitus, and bespeak the real value of the subordinate dignity, which is all that can be obtained under a Domitian or under a Trajan, under the worst or under the best of princes.'

Although Mr. Hobhouse imagines that all the worth of individuals in the antient republics consisted in their mere contests for ascendancy, yet in another place he enters into an elaborate eulogy of Cicero; as if, with such notions, he could have a due conception of the merits of that wise and conciliatory statesman. Perhaps, too, some friend of the writer may suggest to him that even latter days have witnessed such a being as Lord Somers, who assisted in the establishment of a regular constitution, and contributed his *ordinary* services under a limited monarchy, without feeling his 'efforts palsied' or his 'success mortified' by any of those considerations which seem to weigh down Mr. Hobhouse's sensibility.

The Essay on Italian Literature, announced in the title-page, dwindles into an essay on the *present* literature of Italy *, and a general character of the lives and writings of Cesarotti, Parini, Alfieri, Pindemonti, Monti, and Foscolo. These notices are a tissue of table-talk-anecdote and *quid-nunc* information; and even here, to shew the compiler's confusion, the only novel anecdotes of Alfieri are inserted in a separate part of the book in a note on 'Alfieri's bones,' though he has given a distinct memoir on that singular personage. The account of Parini is the most interesting, and the most complete; and the best criticism in the book, whether it be a translation or an abstract of some Italian review, or supplied by an abler hand, is the following censure of Foscolo:

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* An edition of this work (as we apprehend) is advertized under the altered title of "An Essay on the present State of Literature in Italy, &c. &c. with Illustrations of Childe Harold."

> 'Those who have criticised Foscolo's discourse on the origin and the duties of literature, have found all the beauties and all the defects of this author more strongly displayed in the discourse than in any other of his prose works. A strict propriety in the words, a severe grammatical exactness, and a scrupulous rejection of every thing not absolutely inherent in the genius of the language — these meritorious characteristics are apparent in every page: but on the other hand, the same composition is remarkable for an unusual method of connecting the phrases; for the perilous boldness of the metaphors; for the over-nice discrimination of the expressions, and the use of them in the primitive Tuscan sense in contradistinction to their modern acceptation; for a certain confusion of imagery with argument, a continual struggle between the natural impetuosity and the affected calm of the writer; for a union of objects very different in themselves, which are distinguished by a variety of colouring that dazzles and confounds the eye; and, lastly, for the crowd of ideas which together with the rapidity of expression overwhelm and fatigue the attention.'

Of the other matter, the letters of Tasso contain nothing of interest: but then, for the benefit of the curious, 'a fac-simile of his hand-writing' is also given. The letters written by Rienzi are, indeed, very singular performances. — We forbear to say any thing on the hints about fate and fortune, and the sneers about the harmony of the world, because we imagine that any such intimations of scepticism are as innoxious as the foregoing preference of republicanism.

Art. VIII. *A Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly*, M.P. from Henry Brougham, Esq. M.P. F.R.S. upon the Abuse of Charities. 8vo. pp. 67. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co. 1818.

Art. IX. *Appendix to Mr. Brougham's Letter:* containing Minutes of Evidence taken before the Education Committee. 8vo. pp. 104. 3s. Longman and Co.

Art. X. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Sir William Scott, &c. &c. M.P. for the University of Oxford*, in answer to Mr. Brougham's Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, upon the Abuse of Charities, and Ministerial Patronage in the Appointments under the late Act. To which is added, An Appendix: containing an Abstract of the principal Acts of Parliament relating to Charities, and likewise the late Act, 58 Geo. III., by which the Commission is appointed and empowered. 8vo. pp. 76. 3s. Hatchard.

Since the commencement of the present month, the public feeling has been severely tried by a most afflicting event, the death of the eminent man to whom the first of the above letters is addressed. The general sympathy excited by his affliction under the loss of a beloved wife, and the universal gloom occasioned by his decease, produced by that suffering, are strong indications of the manner in which the world appreciated his character, whether as a statesman, as a lawyer, or as a man. In the senate, and at the bar, the energetic force of his great talents had made an impression which will never be eradicated from the minds of his cotemporaries, and has left a record which will survive when they shall be no more. As an advocate, Sir Samuel Romilly, though unassisted (except for a peculiarly short interval) by any advantages of office, rose to an eminence that had not been reached by any of his predecessors, however recommended by their dignity or their attainments. In the senate, he exhibited an almost solitary contradiction to the extraordinary fact that forensic abilities are not calculated for parliamentary display. Whenever he rose, he commanded the attention of the House; and, notwithstanding the overwhelming nature of his professional avocations, his speeches always seemed to proceed from one who was familiarly conversant with the subject before him, and who had devoted himself to the study of its various points and bearings. Unshackled by the chicanery of the courts, his views and ideas on all political subjects were most liberal and extensive. During the comparatively short period of his parliamentary career, his active endeavours to cleanse the bankrupt-laws from some of their impurities; — his eloquent and pathetic appeals in favour of the enslaved Africans; — his wise exertions towards the improvement of the criminal jurisprudence of the empire; — and particularly his benevolent and ardent efforts to abolish the infliction of death except in extreme cases, and thus in fact to diminish crime, by rendering its punishment more certain, though less severe; — will intitle him to a prominent place in the page of history, and will justify his countrymen in conferring on him the enviable titles of *Patriot* and *Philanthropist*. As a man, alas! how deeply will he be lamented! The uniform integrity of his life, the high principles of his character, the suavity of his disposition, and the mild and becoming dignity of his deportment, threw about him a charm which universally engaged the esteem, while it enforced the respect, of those with whom he was less intimately connected. The sensations of those who were more closely united to him, whether by relationship or friendship, we cannot attempt to describe: but we can, and do most sincerely, sympathize with them in their present distress, and we would not willingly trespass on their sorrows. We speak now as public men; and we cannot but feel that, in the afflicting and eventful circumstances which preceded and accompanied the close of his brilliant career, — though they awfully remind us of the weakness of human powers, and the vanity of human glory, — there is an additional cause for lamentation on the loss of such a man; a more affecting and more interesting ground for our regard to his memory. We knew the subject of these remarks; — we have watched him through much of his public life; — we need not add how deeply we lament his death; — nor need we apologize for this short and inadequate testimony to his extraordinary merits.

To this great man Mr. Brougham addressed his letter on the Abuse of Charities; and the subject will doubtless acquire an additional attraction, and we hope receive a more extensive investigation, from the knowlege of the union of two such distinguished individuals in so interesting and benevolent an undertaking. That the inquiry is of infinite importance few, we presume, will deny; — although the epithet of "*pity-mad*" has been contemptuously applied to the advocates of this and other philanthropic measures, by some who are either bigoted against any sort of improvement if it looks like innovation, or who are interested to screen themselves from censure, which is sometimes accomplished by treating their opponents with ridicule. The term, however, is not very judiciously used with reference to persons who are endeavouring to benefit their fellow-creatures, nor is it exclusively applicable to the present times; since, unluckily for those who have selected it, former periods of our history shew that our ancestors were not backward in their endeavours towards the same objects: a fact which is rendered apparent by the noble foundations that yet remain as splendid monuments of their charitable exertions, and by the shadowy ruins of others which exist as so many disgraceful memorials of the avarice or apathy of their successors. In one view, indeed, the epithet "*pity-mad*" may perhaps be properly applied; — and yet we trust that even there they may be mistaken: but, when a school-room at Croydon, which Archbishop Whitgift devised for the gratuitous instruction of the poor, is now used as a seminary where the inhabitants give them education at their own expence, the pious contributors may perhaps be considered as obnoxious to the term, viewing as they do the end to which their labours may be brought. May the benevolence, which is not restrained by the corruptions that surround it, meet with its due reward!

The abuses, by which some of the charitable institutions of our fore-fathers have been rendered nugatory, are of very great extent; and it seems as if scarcely a considerable town could be named in the empire, from which a case of malversation of charitable funds might not be produced. In the investigation into the state of education among the poor, which during the last two years has been pursued before a Committee of the House of Commons, so many instances of mis-conduct appeared, that by their recommendation a bill was introduced into parliament for the purpose of appointing a commission, 'as the most effectual and economical mode of bringing to light the still more numerous cases of abuse which every one suspected to exist.' Mr. Brougham, as chairman of the Committee, had the management of this legislative measure, during its progress through the House of Commons; and in consequence of the mutilations which it received there, and more particularly in the House of Lords, — by which, as he contends, his bill is reduced to a mere nullity, — he has chosen this public method of justifying his own intentions, and of protesting against the law as it now stands. That those persons, whose interference he thus calls in question, consider his arguments as of some weight, we may judge from the reply to them which has appeared in a letter to Sir William Scott, which bears evident marks of proceeding from certain authority. The writer of this last letter is evidently a lawyer, and, if report speaks truly, one of the Commissioners appointed under the new Act. He would have done better, in our opinion, if he had refrained from the personalities which he has so freely levelled against his antagonist.

The first point on which the two letter-writers are at issue is comparatively trifling. While Sir William Scott's correspondent observes that 'such an impression was created upon the benevolence and generosity of the House,' by the details of abuses in the reports, 'that no bill of such extensive application ever passed with so little deliberation,' it is curious that Mr. Brougham has stated the contrary fact; making it a principal ground of complaint that, notwithstanding the laborious investigation of the various provisions of the bill both in the lower house and among the ministers during its discussion there, the complete alteration of its principle, and paralization of its powers, were reserved for the House of Lords. The circumstances which he details, and which are not contradicted, corroborate his assertion.

'Skilful professional men assisted me in preparing the bill; it underwent a minute discussion above stairs; it was then communicated to his Majesty's ministers and to the law officers of the Crown; and, as there was reason to apprehend that the principal opposition to it would be made in the Lords, it was submitted to the highest legal authority in that House, as well as to the Secretary of State for the home department, to whose province, I was informed, the subject in an especial manner appertained. About ten weeks elapsed from its introduction to the passing of the act; the whole time being occupied in discussing its provisions, and in altering almost every part of them again and again. I believe it was printed not fewer than six times.'

We shall not follow these disputants through the several stages of their discussions. Our readers, without many arguments to lead them, will be able to judge whether more good is likely to be effected from the investigation of eight commissioners appointed by parliament or by the ministers:—whether the limitation of the number which should constitute a quorum to *two*, which would thus enable *four boards* to carry on the inquiry at the same time, or the extension of it to *three*, which would reduce the number of boards to two, leaving two commissioners wholly unemployed, is calculated to be more beneficial; — whether the personal and local investigation, which formed a part of the original plan, or the proceeding by written interrogatories, which is understood to be substituted in the new one, will cause the most satisfactory results; — whether the abrogation of the power of the commissioners to compel parties to give evidence, and produce documents, was a wise alteration; — whether this restriction from inquiring generally into the state of education, or into the abuses of any charities but those only which are connected with the education of the poor, was consistent with the ministerial professions of economy, which would have been more satisfactorily proved by allowing the same expence and trouble to serve for all these purposes; — and lastly, whether it was wise,

> " seeing what we have seen, seeing what we see,"

to exempt charities having special visitors, governors, or overseers, from the inquiries of the commissioners.

The temper in which the discussion is conducted by the author of the reply may be seen in a short extract.

' Indeed, those who had observed the proceedings of the more active members of the Committee, with cautious attention, could not altogether silence some suggestions which arose in their minds, that their spirit and proceedings were not altogether favourable to the existing establishments of the country, and particularly to the Church of England. They thought they saw something of that dissenting leaven, which under the name and pretext of liberal principles, was for relaxing that union of church and state, which those educated in ancient opinions consider to be a part of the constitution of the country as much as parliament and the crown itself.

They could not forget, that the leading gentleman in this committee had very eminently distinguished himself as the advocate of this *liberalism*, and was the avowed and eloquent patron of that system of education, which, under the name of *Lancasterian*, is directly opposed to that of Dr. Bell and the Church of England. It was strongly impressed upon their minds, that the honourable gentleman was one of a school and fraternity, which in passing from the condition of scholars to that of masters to their southern neighbours, was superseding all ancient doctrines and practices by new modes and maxims; reducing all useful knowledge to the compass of political economy and the elements of the human mind, and expelling all the ancient masters, for Hume, Adam Smith, and Dugald Stewart.'

All this is truly disgusting, and is "any thing but to the purpose." How those who are disinterestedly exerting themselves to secure to the poor the benefits which were intended for them, and to restore the funds of the reverend and pious founders to their original channel, can be suspected of thinking or acting unfavourably towards the Church of England, is to us a paradox which we must leave to this writer to solve. Clearness, indeed, does not seem to be his *forte*: since, his arguments to justify the ministerial appointment of the commissioners would, when carried to their extent, convict them of permitting an encroachment of the prerogative of the crown in allowing the bill to pass in any shape. If the parliament had power to appoint a commission, surely their nomination of the commissioners could not be unconstitutional.

As our purpose, however, is little more than to excite the public attention to the subject, we shall not enter into a minute discussion, but merely lay before our readers an abstract of the facts in the leading cases which are introduced in this correspondence, and the evidence of which is contained in the Appendix to Mr. B.'s Letter.

Reading School-Charities. — In this town are several charities: 1. A Grammar-school, founded by Henry VII. for educating the boys of the inhabitants. 2. A Blue-coat school, founded about 1657, under the will of Mr. Richard Aldworth, who left 4000l. to purchase lands; which till 1811 (a period of more than 150 years) let for only 196l. per annum, but which are now indeed raised to 400l. The money is allotted to the payment of a schoolmaster, for clothing, educating, and maintaining 20 poor boys, teaching 30 poor boys as day-scholars, and apprenticing two boys of 16 years of age. 3. Archbishop Laud's gift of lands, let from 1640 to 1808 at 200l. per annum, the rents of which are now raised to 635l. 4. Sir Thomas Rich's charity (1666) consists of a gift of 1000l. to purchase lands, the rent of which (110 acres) till

1810 was only 54l., but is now 260l. Its object is to maintain six poor boys in Mr. Aldworth's school: but it appears that this and all the other charities of the borough (except that of Archbishop Laud) are in debt to the corporation. 5. Malthus's charity is a rent-charge of 91l., now 191l. per annum, arising out of Blewberry, for the education of 11 boys, but there are only seven on the charity at present. 6. West's charity was originally 1200l. orphan-stock, vested in the Clothworker's company in London, on trust to purchase lands, which has never been done. It is intended to educate and maintain six poor boys. 7. Hall's school, 1696, where a house is kept for the schoolmaster, to maintain and teach three poor boys. The revenue is about 95l. — The town possesses some other charities of less importance; and the principal charge against the former managers of Aldworth's charity, in not properly letting the lands, appears to be remedied by the present trustees in the improved rents which they have procured.

St. Bees School. — This is situated at a short distance from Whitehaven, in Cumberland; and its governors are, as such, lords of the manors of St. Bees, Sandwath, and Kirkby Beacock, which belong to the school. It does not appear at what time the school was founded; and a want of distinctness prevails as to the boundaries, and even the precise names, of its manors. The evidence shews, however, that by a grant of James I. seventy tenements were given to the school; all of which were leased in 1608 for the term of 1000 years;—and in a note by Mr. Brougham it is stated that the whole of their rent amounts to 1ool., though their value is now above 8000l. a year. That this representation is nearly correct, we find from the evidence which is given as to the lease of one of these tenements, an estate called Seacoate, containing about 30 acres, which is let for 15s. per annum: but these leases were granted in the reign of the royal endower, and probably at the time of the endowment; and therefore it does not seem to us that they can come under the designation of abuses of the school-funds. It farther appears, however, that in the year 1742, a lease was granted by the then governors to Sir James Lowther, one of their body, of all the coals belonging to the school-manors, for a term of 867 years, (in order to expire with the surface-leases,) at the rent of 3l. 10s. a year. On this topic much special pleading is used in the Letter to Sir William Scott; and why such pains are taken we cannot well conceive. No discredit can attach to the present Lord Lonsdale with regard to this lease, whatever may be said of *his ancestor.* Why, then, should not this learned writer allow the matter to stand on its own merits? The very doubts that exist concerning it shew that it is a case fit for investigation; and as such only it is adduced, and but shortly adduced, in Mr. Brougham's Letter. (P. 17.) Whatever were the motives that induced Sir James Lowther to obtain this lease, and whether or not he derived during his life any benefit from it by working any mine, it is apparent that it is *now* generally understood to be a very valuable lease; and that, though no pits are sunken within the manor, yet two pits which are on its borders, and which belong to Lord Lonsdale, are worked *under* it by virtue of this lease, as far as one of the seventy tenements, called Byersteads, which is at least a quarter of a mile within the boundary. It is true that Dr. Satterthwaite expresses ignorance of this circumstance: but he says also that he is entirely unacquainted with mining; and it cannot be overlooked that he enjoys a living in the gift of the noble lessee. All doubts on such a subject should be cleared up. The lease is, beyond dispute, invalid, as being granted to a trustee. If it be of no value, why should not his Lordship surrender it? If it be as valuable as report states it, why should he enjoy that which his ancestor illegally obtained? That some mystery is attached to this lease, and that the subject is unpleasant to the parties concerned, must be surmised from the treatment experienced by the Rev. William Wilson, the late master of the school; whose only offence seems to have been a natural anxiety to inquire into the rights of the school, and a becoming manliness in preventing documents under his charge from being improperly removed. It is worthy of notice, also, that the documents were not produced before the Committee, though application for them was made on the 23d of May. It is true that Lord Lonsdale said that the presence of three governors was necessary to open the chest, and that he was ready to attend with his key for that purpose: but it is observable that this answer did not reach the Committee till within a few days of the dissolution of the parliament; and that his Lordship did not stand on this formality when the chest was previously searched for the lease.

Pocklington School in Yorkshire. — This is an endowment of a grammar-school and five scholarships by Dr. John Dowman, in the reign of Henry VIII., and is subject to the visitation of St. John's College, Cambridge, which appoints the master; and he appoints the usher of the school: which two form a corporation of themselves, and have the sole management of the revenue. This income now amounts to about 800l. or 900l. a year, and is annually increasing from the success of the master in some Chancery suits instituted by him. The school is free, and not confined to residents at Pocklington, which contains about 2000 inhabitants: yet, on a visitation made in October 1817, the two visiting fellows found *only one* scholar there; the school being in a dilapidated state, and used as a lumber-room, or a carpenter's working room. The number of scholars is now increased to eight; and it seems probable, from the interference of the reverend Master of St. John's, that it will be restored to its pristine state of prosperity.

Mere Charity, Lincolnshire;—an endowment founded by one Michael Robell, or Roffell, for six poor men, and a warden to read to them as a residentiary. The date of the foundation is not mentioned; nor does the estate include any almshouse or hospital. The property consists of about 650 acres, and is let by the warden, (who performs no duty whatever, and does not know the brethren,) on a reserved rent of 32l., 24l. of which are divided among the six poor men; and the remainder goes to the warden, who likewise receives for his own benefit the fine on the renewals of the lease, the amount of which is not stated. The superior tenant underlets the land at only 10s. 6d. per acre.

Hospital of Spital, Lincolnshire.—This was endowed in the year 1339, and is nearly the same in its nature as the Mere-charity. Several estates belong to it, one of which alone produces 600l. per annum. Out of the whole, only the sum of 5l. 4s. is paid to each of five poor persons.

It is truly stated that both of the last-mentioned charities are merely ecclesiastical property, in the nature of all other church-preferment in the presentation of their right reverend patron, the Bishop of Lincoln; and an assertion is thence drawn that they do not comprehend any abuse of charitable funds. This is, however, by no means clear. It is certain that, for a long period, they and many other such endowments have been considered in that light: but does it follow that such was the intention of their founders? They differ also from other ecclesiastical preferment in one material point; viz. that they have no parochial or other duties appertaining to them. Is it probable, then, that the founders meant to endow clergymen with valuable estates, and to demand no equivalent in return?

Yeovil Charities, Somersetshire.—This town has four charities; the church-charity, the two alms-houses, and the school: all of which are stated to be richly endowed, and grossly abused. The school-estates produce 700l. a year; yet in 1802 it had no pupils; in 1813 seven or eight: but

now

now about thirty. No account is given of the application of the surplus funds. — The estates belonging to one of the alms-houses produce nearly 500l. per annum, and till lately only three or four persons were supported in them. The other alms-house contains only four old women; and they receive so small a stipend that they are obliged to have farther relief from the parish, though the revenue attached to the endowment is 642l. per annum.

The Appendix contains some evidence relative to the Croydon, Wellingborough, and Huntingdon charities; into the particulars of which we have not at present room to enter. It appears, however, that the estates of the last are applied in a considerable degree to promote the influence of the proprietor of the borough in the election of its members. One instance also occurs, in the Appendix, of all record of a charity being entirely lost.

Nearly the whole of the cases above cited are exempted from the operation of the new act, under one or another pretext; — they have either special visitors, or are not strictly devoted to the *education* of the poor: — yet will any one assert that they are not proper objects of notice? — The writer of the letter to Sir William Scott may say that they 'are only left to the ordinary law:' but we have too long seen the inefficiency of the course of ordinary law; and the improbability that individuals will risk their money and employ their time in endeavouring to procure a doubtful and dilatory remedy. — The following evidence, given by three gentlemen who interested themselves in the Yeovil charities, will shew the benefits resulting from such proceedings:

> '[*To Mr. Watts.*] Did you go into Chancery soon after the year 1802? — *We instituted proceedings there in* 1804.
>
> 'How long were you in Chancery? — *We are not out yet; we have paid twelve or thirteen hundred pounds, and only received about* 300*l. from the town.*
>
> 'Have you found that court afford you relief? — *Oh! it has ruined me.*
>
> 'Have you found the expences heavy? — *Oh, good God, I have wished myself out of the world a thousand times since I have got into it; it has entirely ruined me! I had a nice business, which brought me in four or five hundred a year, which it has ruined; and I have now a wife and family.*
>
> '[*To Mr. Welmington.*] Have you suffered any thing in this court? — *My heart is almost broken; indeed my nerves are so shook by the losses I have sustained by this proceeding, that I scarcely know what I am speaking of, and I have a wife and eight children; it is the most grievous thing to me I have ever known; I was a churchwarden only two years.*

'[*To Mr. Collins.*] What have you found the Court of Chancery to be?—*It has cost me about 500l., and I am afraid I do not know the worst of it yet; I suppose the other party will bring in a bill against us.*'

Notwithstanding the curtailed powers of the Commissioners under the new Act, we are not without hopes that much good may be done. At all events, the spirit of inquiry is raised; and, for a time at least, the objects of the various charitable institutions in the kingdom will obtain a more equitable distribution of the funds appropriated to their education or their support.

Some other publications on this subject will call for our future notice.

Art. XI. *Familiar Lectures on Moral Philosophy.* By John Prior Estlin, LL.D., &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

It is impossible, we think, to bestow on this useful and pleasing work the attention which it deserves without a conviction that the character presented to us of its author, in a brief but interesting memoir prefixed to the first volume, is not merely the dictate of affectionate partiality. To those persons who have enjoyed no other means of judging than those which are afforded by his writings, Dr. Estlin must certainly appear to have been an elegant scholar, a successful teacher of religion and virtue, and a most amiable and excellent man. His discourse on the nature and causes of Atheism well deserves the commendation bestowed on it by the anonymous author of the memoir; as containing profound disquisition adorned with all the charms of classic writing, and remarkable not less for candour and impartiality than for the extensive reading and accurate erudition which it displays. His later work, also, on the doctrine of Universal Restitution, whatever may be thought by many either of the doctrine itself or of the reasoning by which the author endeavours to support it, must be admitted to afford abundant proof of a pious and benevolent heart. As a public teacher of religion, he seems to have been ready, whenever it appeared to be his duty, to maintain and defend his peculiar views of Christian doctrine: but in general he was 'more desirous of drawing the attention of his hearers to points on which all are agreed than to those on which a difference of opinion subsists. The goodness of God and the great practical duties of Christianity were his favourite themes. To those of a different persuasion he always shewed the utmost candour; the fervour of his religious feelings never led him to bigotry, nor his liberality to scepticism.' (Memoir, p. xxx.)

The volumes now before us consist of a series of lectures addressed originally to the author's family and pupils; in which he states it to have been 'his only view to lay before them the plainest principles of moral science and of natural theology, and whatever is of the greatest practical utility, without any regard to the source from which it is derived.' Accordingly, the attentive reader will not fail to perceive that very free use has been made of the works of former writers, particularly Hutcheson and Paley; although in most cases the author may well be said to have rendered the argument his own by the warm strain of piety and affectionate earnestness which pervades the whole, and which cannot be borrowed, but must proceed from his own devout and worthy spirit. A few introductory lectures are devoted to a general view of the faculties of the human mind, and of the fundamental inquiries respecting the nature and definition of virtue, with the foundation of moral obligation. After what we have already observed of the characteristic merits of this writer, our readers probably will not be surprized to find that we do not consider these theoretical discussions as constituting the most valuable part of the work: they are in fact chiefly derived from Hutcheson and Reid; and therefore they appear to us to be defective in representing those feelings and affections of the mind as original instincts, which a more accurate and careful analysis would shew to be the result of education and experience. By confining their attention too much to the character and influence of these affections, as they present themselves in their matured state, those eminent philosophers seem to have been prevented from examining their origin and history, and from successfully tracing the steps of that process by which they are gradually formed, strengthened, and improved.

In conformity with these views, Dr. Estlin includes a variety of feelings and principles under the general denomination of *senses;* which he defines to be 'those powers whereby certain perceptions or ideas are raised in the mind upon the bare presenting to it of certain objects, independently of the will.' These, we are told, are the powers of our nature, which are first in their operation, and the inlets of all our knowlege; after which, if the language of this system had been new to us, we might have been surprized to hear of the *senses* of beauty, sublimity, and novelty. We do not propose to enter at length into a discussion of this subject. It might, indeed, prove to be little better than a dispute about words; since it may perhaps be shewn that the language used by these writers really means nothing more than that various ideas and feelings arise in the course of our education, from the mechanical operation of the several circumstances in which we are placed acting on the original constitution of the human mind. If this be the case, the only fault that we can allege against them is that they have used certain familiar terms in a new and unusual sense; by these means rendering their reasonings obscure, and perhaps occasionally misleading both themselves and their readers. Of this result, we think, an example occurs in the ensuing passage:

> 'What any sense immediately relishes is desired for itself ultimately; but when by the use of our reason we find that many things which *of themselves* give no pleasure to any sense, are yet the necessary means of obtaining what is immediately pleasant and desirable, such things are naturally pursued, not on their own account, but as means adapted to certain ends. When they are pursued as ends, the rule of morality is violated. Of this class are *extensive influence* in society, *riches* and *power*, which though they are originally pursued as means, in consequence of habit and the want of proper consideration, are often pursued not as means but as ends, and thus become the source of great misery instead of happiness.' (P. 25.)

It is very true that, when these objects are pursued as ends, the rule of morality is violated, but not for the reason here assigned. It is not because riches and power are in the first instance considered merely as the means of obtaining other things, that it is wrong to pursue them for their own sake; for this is the case with many objects which *ought* to be pursued as ends. No one can attend to the origin and progress of the benevolent affections without perceiving that they are universally the result of that principle in the human constitution, by which the pleasurable emotions originally excited by certain objects are gradually transferred to any thing that is instrumental in attaining them, and are at length so intimately connected with it as to be excited by it immediately, without reference to the original cause. In the case to which we have just adverted, it is desirable that this transference should be rendered as complete and perfect as it can be, because this is necessary in order most effectually to promote the general happiness: while, in the cases introduced by the author, it is necessary to check and if possible to prevent it altogether, for the opposite reason, namely, that such pursuits are thus rendered the sources of great misery both to the agent and to society.

Dr. Estlin adopts, as the most easy and natural division of human duties, that which is taken from the objects towards which they have a reference, according as they relate to ourselves, to our fellow-creatures, or to our Maker; or, as he expresses it, into *personal*, *social*, and *divine* morality. Every man owes it to himself to acquire and enjoy the greatest attainable sum of good, and to suffer the least evil, consistently with the duties which he owes to other beings. The first object, therefore, of the inquirer into the nature of personal morality, seems to be to ascertain the standard by which we are to determine the comparative amount of the different enjoyments or evils incident to human nature. Accordingly, Dr. E. assumes that the value of any pleasure is in proportion to its *dignity*, *intenseness*, *duration*, being *compatible with other pleasures*, being adapted to all times and places, and being *undeprivable*. We shall not at present stop to examine whether any intelligible definition can be given of the first of these characters of the chief good, that will not resolve it into a combination of the others; — it is enough to observe that the standard thus obtained is judiciously applied, in several following lectures, to the most usual or important pursuits of mankind: such as bodily accomplishments, external advantages, intellectual endowments, the acquisition of knowlege, and the cultivation of *moral* good, or the excellent dispositions and affections of the heart. To the results of this analysis we have, in general, nothing to object; and the comparative values of different objects of human pursuit, as deduced from it, are stated in a judicious and forcible manner.

Some passages from the lecture on the value of intellectual endowments may furnish a fair specimen of the author's style of practical illustration:

> ' In the estimation of the generality of mankind, it is to be feared that intellectual accomplishments sustain a higher rank than even the *moral* qualities of the heart, as they are of a more brilliant nature, and make a greater external appearance. In the estimation however of impartial reason, in the sight of Almighty God, and as means of happiness, they are only of secondary importance. But, considered in themselves, as next in worth to moral goods; as closely connected with them, and as increasing *their* sphere of exertion and utility, they are certainly truly estimable, and can scarcely be cultivated with too much assiduity. The intellectual powers of our nature are attended with this singular advantage. They render our happiness and misery in a great measure independent on temporary circumstances and sensations; they multiply, as it were, our existence, and make us capable of being affected by objects remote in place and distant

in time. By the exercise of those powers of understanding with which he is endued, man is enabled to look beyond himself, and to be interested in whatever happens to others around him. By the assistance of the same faculties he can take a retrospective view of his own conduct, and derive a fund of entertainment from the recollection of scenes and events that have been long since past. Nay, in the faithful mirror of history, he can bring before him the most important events which have taken place in all past ages of the world. In imagination he can look forward into distant futurity, and derive pleasure or pain from the apprehension of future good or evil. True greatness or elevation of mind consists in acting as much as possible upon this *enlarged scale*, in taking into our plan remote and distant events; and in regulating our conduct, not merely by present feelings, or rather by feelings which relate to present objects, but by a regard to the greatest sum of happiness, and of the longest duration. The best of human beings are most influenced by the remembrance of what is past and the expectation of what is future. In some minds these intellectual pleasures and pains wholly overpower all temporary sensations. In all they constitute no inconsiderable share of their happiness and misery.' —

'An extensive prospect of human life, and of the revolutions of human affairs as exhibited in the faithful pages of history, will greatly conduce to give a certain elevation of mind, and a noble contempt of those little competitions about wealth and power which disturb and divide the bulk of mankind, and will promote a calm acquiescence under those ills which are the common lot of humanity. Add to all this that a just knowledge of human nature, and of all those circumstances on which the business and fortunes of men depend, will prevent our thinking too highly or too meanly of our fellow-creatures; give no small scope to the exercises of friendship, kindness, and good will; and at the same time brace the mind with a proper caution and distrust, (those nerves of prudence,) and give a greater steadiness and consistency to the character. Therefore by cultivating our intellectual abilities we shall best promote and secure our own true interest, and be qualified for acting our part in society with more honour to ourselves and advantage to mankind. Consequently to improve them to the utmost of our power is our duty; they are talents committed to our care by the Almighty Head of society, and we are accountable to him for the use of them. But let it ever be remembered that, how engaging soever the *Muses* and the *Graces* may be, they are chiefly valuable as they are the handmaids to usher in and to set off the *Moral Virtues;* from which service, if they are ever divorced, they become retainers to the meaner passions, panders to vice, and convert men, if we may use the expression, into a refined sort of savages.' (Pp. 107—114.)

In treating of the nature of social morality, the author arranges the various duties which man owes to his fellow-creatures in an interesting and pleasing manner, according to the order in which an individual is gradually introduced, as he advances in life, into the various relations from which these duties arise. In pursuance of this principle of arrangement, he treats in the first place of the duties of children to their parents; devoting several succeeding lectures to a review of the different relations of domestic life, before he notices any of the duties which arise out of our connection with more extensive communities. We are not disposed, at present, to enter into a discussion of the merits of this arrangement: but to us it appears not calculated to introduce what may be called a *philosophical* view of the subject, though sufficiently well suited to the author's professed purpose of familiar and practical illustration. In this point of view, several of these lectures have very considerable merit; though the attentive reader will easily perceive that they possess but slight claims to originality. It is obvious, too, that these domestic duties are treated with a fullness of detail which we should consider as disproportionate in a more regular and philosophical treatise, but of which in the present instance we feel no disposition to complain, because they are evidently most suited to the writer's taste and genius, and because the more extended discussion of them was likely to be peculiarly interesting and useful to young persons; to whom these lectures were originally addressed, and for whose use it is reasonable to presume that the publication is chiefly intended. In the lecture on marriage, Dr. E. adverts to a consideration which is too often disregarded; and which, notwithstanding its importance, has been almost universally overlooked by moralists. A similarity of opinion on religious subjects, he thinks, at least as far as it is necessary to enable the parties to unite in the same public and private religious observances, and above all in this most important department of the education of their children, ought always to be a *sine quâ non* in forming this most intimate of all connections. To be tenacious on this point is no mark of bigotry, any more than to be indifferent to it is a proof of liberality. 'Innumerable are the evils, both to the parties themselves and to their children, of a dissonance of opinion respecting religious matters. Bigotry, or religious indifference, the interruption of domestic peace and harmony, the want of that sympathy which alone can cement the purest and sublimest affection, and the neglect of the most important part of the education of children, are among the certain consequences of a marriage where this prevails.'

The first two lectures in Vol. II., in which the inquiry into the nature of social morality is continued, are devoted to a rapid, and somewhat slight and unsatisfactory, sketch of the nature of *rights*, of laws, and of government, particularly the British constitution; of which, though the author does not enter into a detailed account, he speaks in those terms of affectionate attachment that become an enlightened lover of liberty and of his country. This branch of the subject is concluded by an able, and in some parts eloquent, examination of the principal questions connected with the observance of truth; with respect to which, Dr. Estlin is far from admitting the incautious licence that is recommended, or at least not reprobated, by some otherwise judicious ethical writers. This is one of the singular cases in which the opinions of philosophical moralists are often less rigid than the ordinary practice of mankind. Extreme cases may doubtless be imagined, and may sometimes occur, in which it shall be difficult to strike the balance between the general importance of a rigid adherence to the rule, and the particular advantage of an occasional deviation from it: yet we conceive that no person, who was habitually influenced by a desire to do what appeared to be right, ever violated truth without a degree of repugnance and hesitation which would be likely to defeat the immediate object; and which might reasonably lead him to doubt whether this object, as far as it was really eligible, might not be secured without so painful a sacrifice of the ordinary rule of morality. Some of these extreme cases are very ably examined in the excellent article on Moral Philosophy in Dr. Rees's Cyclopædia, in which the ingenious author enforces the universal obligation of veracity by arguments that, if they do not fully convince us, we would not willingly undertake to refute. 'If,' says Dr. Estlin in conclusion, 'we are unwilling to contribute our part towards dissolving the bonds of society; if we wish to avoid endless perplexities and difficulties, and to have our passage through life smooth and easy; if we dread the contempt of our own hearts, of our fellow-creatures, and of Almighty God, and that future punishment which he has denounced in his word against the worst of crimes, let us avoid every species of falsehood; and upon all occasions, whatever consequences we may think we foresee, adhere inflexibly to truth. This is the plainest, the easiest, the happiest of all directions. This is the certain way to live beloved, to die lamented, and when we are removed from this scene of action to have our memory blessed.' (P. 67.)

At the conclusion of the whole work, the author appropriates three lectures (perhaps somewhat out of their proper place) to the kindred subject of *Sincerity;* under which denomination he treats at some length, and in a peculiarly able and impressive manner, on the nature and advantages of integrity and simplicity of character in general. After having remarked on some practices which appear to him to be affectations and counterfeits of true sincerity, — such as an eager and overheated zeal respecting things of an indifferent nature, an unseasonable and unauthorized proneness to reprove others for their faults, and that indiscreet and imprudent openness which leads a person indiscriminately and without reserve to speak all that he thinks, — he proceeds to explain and recommend the virtue of genuine sincerity, with reference to ourselves, to others, and to our Maker.

'Sincerity stands recommended to us by its native worth and intrinsic excellence. The path of sincerity, before the heart is corrupted, is a natural and easy path. Convinced I am that if we follow the natural dictates of our own minds, as well as consult our ease and tranquillity in life, we shall in all respects be honest and sincere. Virtue and righteousness are *straight* and *evident* paths, so that persons of the meanest capacity with an upright intention cannot err therein. On the contrary, the ways of injustice and deceit are infinitely various and uncertain, full of intricate mazes and many obscure and perplexed windings. Whatever may be thought, it has been proved by all who have made the trial, that to play the hypocrite successfully is not an easy, but a very difficult task. How many have we known, who, after having laid such schemes to impose upon mankind as in their judgment have afforded the fairest prospect of success, have by one single act of imprudence or forgetfulness discovered the imposture, and in consequence hereof have been exposed to the world in their true colours! There is something in the countenance, something in the tone and language, which to persons of penetration will discover the *real man*. I believe the world forms a more accurate judgment of men's characters in general, at least of the imperfections of them, than they themselves are apt to imagine. Upon this account, common prudence and a regard to self-interest alone would naturally lead us to be honest and sincere. Integrity is a plain and easy road, and though perhaps it is not always the *shortest*, it is nevertheless in general the *surest* way to peace, comfort, and happiness in this world; in the same manner as he who keeps constantly forward in an open and straight path is in less danger of mistaking his way, than he who climbs over rocks and precipices in hopes of arriving sooner at his journey's end.' (P. 387.)

The greater part of the second volume is occupied by what the author calls *divine* morality; under which division he presents us, in the first place, with a general account of the views which reason and revelation authorize us to take of the divine nature and attributes. This portion is in the main well and judiciously executed: but much of it is chiefly abridged from Hartley, Paley, and other eminent writers, to whom Dr. Estlin is not slow in acknowleging his obligations. It is a branch of the subject in which he evidently takes the greatest delight; and on which he often displays a warmth of manner, an affectionate earnestness of application, or what the French call *onction*, to which we are not much accustomed from the merely ethical chair. *Love to God* he considers as the first principle of religion; to which, indeed, every thing else that is amiable and excellent in the character of a rational and moral being may be referred. The love of God, if it be genuine, will excite a desire to resemble him, and a constant imitation of all his imitable perfections; it will be attended by an earnest desire to obtain his favour, which can only be done by a faithful obedience to his laws; it will produce in us a stated endeavour to acquaint ourselves with him, by contemplating his perfections, and by maintaining a regular communion with him; and it will manifest itself in a cheerful resignation to all the appointments of his wise and righteous providence.

'The sum of the whole is this; that the love of God and the love and practice of virtue are the same thing. To love God is to desire with all our hearts to please Him; and we *shall* please Him if we use our utmost endeavour to obey his laws. Wherever this obedience is *not* found, men may talk what they please of an ardent love for the Supreme Being; they love *themselves* or the *world* much better. They may boast of *zeal*, even to fury in his service, it is nothing at all but *self-delusion*, or a wicked attempt to deceive others. To love God is to love goodness, for God is goodness. If therefore to love goodness and to practise wickedness is a contradiction; for the same reason, for one who is habitually wicked to pretend to love God is a contradiction also. As he only who doeth righteousness is righteous, so he only who doeth what is pleasing to God is possessed of true love for him.' (P. 284.)

The style of this work is in general correct and perspicuous, though we observe occasional verbal inaccuracies, which, if it could have received the author's final corrections, would in all probability have been removed. Altogether, we have great pleasure in recording our approbation both of the design and the execution. Some of the metaphysical doctrines in the introduction appear to us to be unsound, or at least superficial: but the practical details are every where worthy of the enlightened Christian philosopher.

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POETRY.

Art. 12. *The Gentleman:* A Satire, written during the Years 1812, 1813, 1814, and 1815. 8vo. pp. 100. 4s. sewed. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

Considering the number of years which the present poem, in part at least, has employed in its composition, we cannot help thinking that the author might have compressed its general diffuseness and strengthened its occasional feebleness, during so long a period. He has had much more time than Tillotson wanted to make his sermon shorter. Let us, however, be satisfied with what we can get; and, altogether pleased, as we must be, by the appearance of any thing like classical composition in this equally barbarous and self-conceited age of poetry, let us not be too fastidious in scanning the merits of 'The Gentleman.'

The author takes an extensive view of the prevailing follies of the day, whether shewn in our serious engagements or in our pursuits of pleasure. He remarks on that excess, that transgression of the bounds of nature, and, in course, of good sense, which characterizes the English mind at present. He praises 'the Gentleman,' when occupied in a dignified manner by the cares of agriculture, but deprecates his immersion in manure. He does not survey the sporting propensities of the rich and young with the eye of a Cynic: but he laments to see a senator turned into a gamekeeper, and cannot entirely reconcile the groom and 'the Gentleman.' He advocates, in a word, all the practical rules of moderation; which, if duly observed, would shed comfort over society, and lend a moral dignity to mankind.

His remarks on poetry are so completely in unison with those which we conceive a *gentleman* ought to make, and are so justly intolerant of all violence or sensuality of sentiment, as well as of all barbarisms in expression, that we cannot too strongly applaud this portion of the design of his work; though we may wish that it had been conveyed in still more polished and pointed language, and in a still more masterly flow of verse. We quote a passage from the last-mentioned part of the subject:

> 'Sweet gentle art, to every good allied,
> My latest worship, and my earliest pride:
> Who, far surpassing pleasure's loose pretence,
> Gav'st me a nobler and a better sense;
> Fling'st myriad-treasures to my pausing eye,
> Scorn'd by the crowd, or past unheeded by;
> To Nature's shrine hast led my pensive feet,
> Deck'd my lone cot, and graced my green retreat.
> Oh! Poesy, my solace and my praise,
> How art thou fall'n in these degenerate days!

What barbarous swarms the fruits of fancy waste,
What new irruptions whelm the fields of taste!
From north, from south, from west, from fabled east,
Ambiguous composites of man and beast;
A crude, a monstrous and mis-shapen crew,
As Trans-Atlantic draftsmen ever drew;
Forms that would make e'en Vishnu's votaries smile,
And fill with wild affright the dogs of Nile:
Shame to the age, when they who write to please,
Must fill their fulsome page with things like these!
Must leave the sacred paths of classic lore,
Rude and barbarian regions to explore;
Scorn the pure models of the Attic school,
For listless licence, and for low misrule;
Neglect the Medicean line of grace,
For square proportions and a Tartar face;
Make heroes, demigods, and gods give way
To things of naught, or men of coarser clay;
Brachmins, and faquirs, bandits, and bashaws,
Pagods, and puppets, monks, Moriscoes, Squaws;
Demons of air, and ministers of fire,
" Gorgons and hydras and chimeras dire:"
Shame to the age, when he who writes to please
Must fill his tawdry page with things like these!
Whilst loftier lyres are all in silence hung,
And many a glorious theme remains unsung;
Whilst still distinct each high poetic name
Shines, greatly guiding, on the roll of fame,
And sense and truth and nature are the same!'

The lines that follow oblige us to regret the want of care in an author who censures others for carelessness. No doubt, it may with much justice be observed that he who writes in the oddest and newest manner, provided that he has but genius to defend the excentricities of his taste, will be most sure to succeed among our contemporaries: but we dislike to see the passage, in which this opinion is well supported, commence with such a line as

' *Indeed, indeed, my friend, I'm sad, I'm sick*
To find the art of song a tumbling trick;
He best succeeds who most conceit can show,
Flauntingly high, or resolutely low;
With sudden revolution, dexterous vault,
Suspended pause, or enigmatic halt:
'Tis fair to tempt, with titubating feet,
The shadowy lines where sense and nonsense meet;
To veer a mid-day meaning round about,
Where the whole pleasure lies in finding out;
T' invert, involve, entangle, and imply,
Till doubt and darkness close the aching eye;
'Tis sweet to make us wonder till we dose,
Why verse should seem so very much like prose:

I'm sore perplex'd, when megrim misses melt
O'er wild emotions, which were never felt;
The artist thus who cannot nature draw,
Paints things of marvel which we never saw;
Who cannot work the Muse's genuine ore,
Must rake in rubbish and old saws explore;
Who cannot speak the language of the Nine,
Must on some quaint exploded style refine!
Who finds too hard Apollo's chaste decree,
Calls riot rule, and licence liberty;
Thus blank obscurity conceals defect,
And pert vagaries cover loose neglect:
O for another Pope to roll along
The hallow'd vengeance of satiric song;
The master-scourge of censure to display,
And lash the rhyming follies of the day;
Bid Genius its appropriate paths pursue,
And all his own Augustan times renew;
With morbid taste eternal war to wage,
And yield one poet to redeem the age!
Yes 'tis an age, which smothers in their birth
The fires of genius and of generous worth;
Whilst folly and ambition rule the town,
Apollo roams again a rural clown:
Thou too, my friend, go scare the tuneful Nine,
A frantic votary at the sister shrine;
Play thou some new poetic fast and loose,
Or chant the golden legend of the goose;
Wound reason, taste, and fancy, as you may;
The truant mischief will but have its day.'

A repeated perusal of these lines renders us disposed rather to increase than to diminish our estimate of their merit. They are indeed so much the best part of the book, that, if the author has an opportunity in a second edition, we would strenuously urge on him the necessity of revising the rest of his poem, lest it should occur to some malicious imagination that a passage so superior must have emanated from another mind.

The notes are not the least valuable part of this publication. They contain not only a very interesting and instructive account of the author's experience in cultivating, *en gentilhomme*, a farm of his own, but also matters more generally attractive to the readers of poems: including a powerful critique on the respective merits of our most popular modern writers. To such readers, we recommend a careful attention to the following sentence:

' There are many young men, as well as young women, who will prefer the Roderic of Mr. Southey to the Paradise Lost of Milton; the Fazio of Mr. Milman to the Othello of Shakespeare; the Rimini of Mr. Leigh Hunt, to the Orlando of Ariosto; and the Corsair of Lord Byron to the Iliad of Homer. At some future period of more matured judgment, they will probably feel ashamed of the decisions of their earlier years: the confirmed bad taste of a riper age is I fear generally incorrigible.'

Art. 13. *The Arctic Expeditions.* A Poem. By Miss Porden. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1818.

The time was when such a title as 'The Arctic Expeditions' would have appeared equally poetical with the Newmarket and Norwich *Expeditions*, or any other allusion to the double-bodied coaches which ran in that region: but we are grown scientific in our second childhood of poetry; and we write, good Heaven, *how* we write! about every thing, and nothing! — Miss Porden has been already crowned with our critical ivy. Variegated, perhaps, the leaves of that chaplet may have been, with some *streaks* of disapprobation: but still we hope that it circles the lady's brow with a green bandeau of applause. Rescued from those extraordinary chemical divinities, in whose unintelligible combats of acid and alkali we were lately involved by this fair votary of the Muses, we really set sail with a sort of fresh wind for the Pole: but whether we should get there, we always considered to be as doubtful as the result of the expedition will now warrant us to pronounce it.

> 'Sail, sail, adventurous barks! go fearless forth,
> Storm on his glacier-seat the misty North,
> Give to mankind the inhospitable zone,
> And Britain's trident plant in seas unknown.
> Go! sure, wherever Science fills the mind
> Or grief for man long sever'd from his kind,
> That anxious nations watch the changing gales,
> And prayers and blessings swell your flagging sails.
>
> 'No Muse of all that hymn'd Saturnian Jove
> On Pindus' top, or in Hæmonia's grove,
> Must prompt the strain; Thou! beacon of their way,
> Star of the Pole! inspire the arduous lay.
> And thou, unseen Directress! — Power unknown!
> Shrined darkling on thine adamantine throne,
> Who lov'st, like Virtue, still to shrink from view
> And bless a world, yet shun the glory due;
> While yet they seek thee o'er a trackless main,
> Guide of their course! befriend their poet's strain.'

We could not think that the Pole would listen to this invocation. It seemed to us to be out of all *compass* either of good poetry or good sense. That the lines are inharmonious, any ear must discover; and that it is nonsense to solicit a magnetic inspiration (unless it be that of animal magnetism) any mind must understand.

We select one of the best passages in this little sketch; which Miss Porden might have dropped into the sea from the deck of *the Isabella*, where it was suggested, without any loss to posterity:

> 'Four times the sun his hundred courses ran,
> Another circle of the years began,
> Since one fair land — Yes! though the seas were frore,
> Green were the pastures of its summer shore;
> Its hardy natives loved with keen delight
> Their one long day, and yet their longer night:

But from the hour when on the ice-bound coast,
In vain their prelate sought his people lost,
Each winter piled increasing glaciers round,
And man, in terror, shunn'd the guarded ground.

'Oh! did its sons beneath the withering gale,
Behold each year their scantier herbage fail,
The South still wont with light and joy to bring
The friendly fleets, the short yet fruitful Spring,
Changed to their keenest blast — Oh! has their sight
Been strained o'er growing realms of dreary white,
While each clear ice-berg, floating o'er the main,
Seemed a white sail, and wakened hope again;
Till fancied outcasts, both of Heaven and man,
E'en to their hearts the piercing coldness ran;
O'er blasted fields they roll'd their stiffening eyes,
And sunk the victims of th' unpitying skies.'

Miss Porden concludes her pamphlet with a reference to the *Aurora Borealis*. — We cannot think that her own lustre has greatly increased that of the northern phænomenon in question; and we would advise her muse to measure her way back through Davis's Straits as quickly as possible, to a more southern region.

Art. 14. *Psyche: or, the Soul,* a Poem, in Seven Cantos. By John Brown, Esq. 12mo. pp. 244. 7s. Boards. Souter. 1818.

'Psyche, or the Soul,' is a heavy little attempt to be witty. The author evidently possesses considerable *news-paper*-knowlege, is read in the minor metaphysics of Encyclopædias, and talks of things

'" More fruitful of terrestrial good,
Than all that Verulam unfolds,
Or Newton's pregnant volume holds,
The gay persuasiveness of South,
The vehemence of Johnson's mouth,
Blair's noiseless tenor — the sharp stroke
From Tillotson, that sudden broke, —
Swift's sneer — the theologic sun
Which burnt so fierce in Warburton;
These potentates at once combin'd,
Have less perform'd for humankind."
" Bless'd truth," quoth Tom, " Beyond all price!
That sweeps from earth each sort of vice,
Which knows no difference between
Lucretia and a modern quean!
But puts precisely on a level
The Dean of Bangor and the devil!" '

That this is no very "high bred" author, the foregoing passage must clearly demonstrate: but that he has some fun about him, many scraps of his work might prove. We are contented with the following short specimen:

'Your work complete, away you hurry
To Longman, Richardson, or Murray:
One tells you with a look of iron,
He only publishes for Byron;
Another, with a stupid shrug,
That poetry is quite a drug.'

It is curious to observe how much paper has been wasted in the crude effusions of this Cockney-poet.

'On Sundays, to relax and soften
The rigours of the week, I often
Set off with Jane, from Pentonville,
For Hampstead, or for Highgate Hill:
She at my side, *and I at her's,*
We take the weather that occurs;
No matter, if it rain or not,
Or bleak, or warm, away we trot;
The proverb whisp'ring, wherefore halt,
Pray are you sugar? — no, nor salt.
In such excursions, not a shape
Or substance, can remark escape;
My small grey eyes, in scarce a minute
Rove, from a steeple, to a linnet;
Now watch the passing clouds, and now
The vacillations of a bough.'

Art. 15. *The Shades of Waterloo!* A Vision, in Verse. By M. Young. 8vo. pp. 144. 6s. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall.

This may be a vision, and indeed, from the general appearance of its internal nature, we have every reason to believe that it is: but poetry, or any thing approaching to poetry, it certainly is not. It has about it a kind of disordered wildness, and an exuberance both of feeling and of language, which keep the mind of the reader perpetually and painfully on the stretch, and are never exchanged for the pleasing alternatives of milder and more quiescent strains. Moreover, we continually encounter passages savouring too strongly of the ridiculous; and indeed the whole borders rather too closely on burlesque: witness such lines as these:

'Now Wellington behold, —
Like Moses, waves his *magic* wand,
The sea is on them roll'd!
Where is the *beast of high command!*
His blood is running cold!'

'The beast of high command,' it may be right to inform our readers, is the author's elegant designation of Napoleon, who is again described in the following appropriate and pleasing style:

'The rush of battle wakes him now:
" *'Tis finished! let us save ourselves!*" They *hie*—
The man whom danger could not *cow*
Behold the first to fly!

His troops may save themselves or die—
Their leader minds not them!
No sympathy bedews his eye—
Yet now his heart is beating high
About his diadem!'

We sincerely hope that the 'shades of Waterloo' will feel too much compassion for the frailties of humanity, to seek to be avenged on the author of such strains as these.

Art. 16. *More News from Venice*, by Beppo, a Noble Venetian. Translated from the Original, by Julius. 8vo. pp. 44. Vincent, Oxford, near Brazen-nose College; and Sherwood and Co. London. 1818.

Surely *alma mater* will never *father* this contemptible production. We see that the *publisher* describes himself as living *near Brazen-nose college:* but we feel confident that the *author* never could have been within a hundred miles of any college. Since he says, as indeed he well may,

'I don't pretend to be a perfect bard,'

we may surely close his poem, and add in his own language,

'And therefore we shall take no pains about it.'

Art. 17. *Thoughts on Happiness*, a Poem. By the Rev. Francis Homfray, A.M. late of Oriel College, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 232. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

A long, grave, philosophical poem, without any story,—without any incidents to enliven the monotony of serious and undeniable truisms,—not bad enough to be ludicrous, nor poetical enough to be interesting as a poem,—would seem not particularly calculated to obtain a large proportion of admiration among modern literati; unless, indeed, in the circles of the professed amateurs of sentiment and dulness. The author, however, who has thus committed, as we conceive, an error in judgment in giving premature publicity to his 'Thoughts on Happiness,' has at least the consolation of thinking that, if his labours have not added any great embellishment to the literature of his country, he has done nothing to advocate the cause of error, or weaken the best interests of society; has broached no wild incoherent doctrines, contrary both to revelation and reason; and has aimed no secret shaft at public or private virtue. True happiness is very properly made to consist in that mental peace and internal serenity, which spring only from the pure consolations of religion, from conscious innocence, and from reliance on Divine mercy and wisdom; and though the case is made out with much insipidity, with little variety, and without any of that unction and energy which characterize the nobler efforts of inspiration, yet most willingly would we ascribe to the performance every merit that is due to a sober collection of undeniable truths.

Art. 18. *Sensibility, the Stranger, and other Poems.* By W. C. Harvey. 8vo. pp. 330. 10s. 6d. Boards. Harper. 1818.

We have here a collection partaking rather too much of the qualities of sing-song and common-place, to secure to itself an eternal abode amid the records of inspiration. In the first poem, on 'Sensibility,' we perceive a kind of studied softness of feeling, and some elaborate attempts at pathos, which suit but little with the rugged expression and inharmonious verse in which they are clad. In the second, called 'the Stranger,' we find some degree of improvement in these latter respects: but we have still to lament a deficiency of interest, and an unpoetical style of language, which shew the author to be not yet exactly *facile princeps* in the good graces of the Nine. With regard to quantity, also, our ears are frequently offended by such irregularities as the following: Posthūmous, Thaliă, Perĭcles, &c. — The minor poems in the collection are for the most part of a trifling and ordinary description.

BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 19. *Memoirs of Emanuel Augustus Dieudonné, Count de Las Casas*, communicated by himself: comprizing a Letter from Count de Las Casas at St. Helena to Lucien Bonaparte, giving a faithful Account of the Voyage of Napoleon to St. Helena, his Residence, Manner of Living, and Treatment on that Island. Also a Letter addressed by Count de Las Casas to Lord Bathurst. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 240. 8s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1818.

This publication consists of three parts; 1. A biographical sketch of Las Casas, given not by himself but by an anonymous contributor; 2. A letter from Las Casas to Lucien Bonaparte, containing an account of Napoleon's voyage to St. Helena, and of his mode of living there down to September 1816; 3. A letter from Las Casas to Lord Bathurst, written at Frankfort on the Maine in December 1817.

M. de Las Casas is a native of Languedoc, and was educated at the *Ecole Militaire* of Paris. He finished his studies about the year 1780, in the midst of the American war, and at a time when the naval service was an object of great attention in France. He therefore went to sea, and soon witnessed a specimen of British valour at the siege of Gibraltar. On the conclusion of peace, he performed voyages to the French colonies in America, Africa, and India, and had obtained promotion in the navy when the Revolution burst forth and involved him, with a number of naval officers, in the tide of emigration. He served at first with those of his countrymen who had proceeded to Coblentz, but soon afterward came over to England, where he acquired our language, and occupied his time partly in teaching, partly in literary researches: it was now that he printed the first edition of his Historical Atlas, which, in its improved form, is noticed in our seventy-third volume. In 1802, the re-admission of the emigrants into France enabled him to re-visit his native country: where, having passed some years in private life, he obtained a government-employment in the Marine Department at Paris; which led to his being employed on different missions, first in Holland, afterward in Dalmatia, natia, and finally in the maritime provinces of France. In all these situations, he is said to have acquitted himself with intelligence and activity: but he had scarcely brought them to a close, when the reverse of Bonaparte's fortune took place in the spring of 1814. Las Casas lived in retirement during the first year of the restoration of the Bourbons: but, on Bonaparte's return from Elba, he was again employed; and, when the decisive day of Waterloo left his imperial patron no alternative but to seek safety by traversing the ocean, the Count was considered, from his nautical knowlege, as a fit companion of his flight.—The biographical sketch, from which these particulars are extracted, is full of vagueness and redundancy; it is also anonymous, but, if we may judge from its superabundance of paneygric, it proceeds from the pen of a Frenchman.

We come next to the compositions of M. de Las Casas himself, of which the first is a letter to Lucien Bonaparte; containing an account of the departure of Napoleon from Paris after the battle of Waterloo, and of his embarrassment on arriving at Rochefort, where he found the egress blockaded by English men of war, while the country behind him was falling fast under the command of the Bourbons. At one time, a project was entertained of crossing the Atlantic Ocean in two fishing barks: but this idea was abandoned, both on account of the danger, and because it would be necessary to land on the coast of Spain or Portugal to take in water. Thus situated, a surrender to the English was deemed the preferable alternative; in the expectation that, the act being in some measure voluntary, Bonaparte would be exempted from the usual hardships of imprisonment. This mode of reasoning formed the ground of the angry protest made by him on board the Bellerophon, when he received notice of the final determination of our Government to send him to St. Helena. During the voyage to that island, Bonaparte, though dissatisfied, was calm. On his arrival, he suffered from the heat of the lower part of the island, and from a very confined lodging in the country, where he was obliged to pass two months, until the house at Longwood was put in repair. Longwood, says Las Casas, when only a farm-house, was given to the last deputy-governor of the island, who intended to convert it into a country-seat: but the additions made to the original building were hasty and slight. The frame of a wooden edifice, on an extensive scale, was sent out soon afterward from England: but the time and expence required to set it up, and otherwise finish the residence, were considered as too great to be incurred at a season when retrenchment took place in every other department of our expenditure. Longwood, being on high ground, is in general regarded as healthy: but Las Casas dissents from that opinion; alleging that, whenever the sun appears, the place is burned up with heat, and that when the sun is obscured it is immersed in moisture. They were thus, he says, exposed to incessant vicissitudes of heat and cold, while they were strangers to the variety arising from change of season; the climate in that tropical latitude being almost the same in one month as another. Unluckily, there is a want both of water and shade at Longwood; and in the vicinity scarcely any thing is to be seen but heath and a few bushes.

After these objections to the physical character of Bonaparte's position, Count Las Casas proceeds to enumerate others, arising from the instructions of our Government and the personal character of Sir Hudson Lowe. Napoleon was accustomed, when in Europe, to long and violent riding; in St. Helena, the space is limited by the ruggedness of the ground; and the attendance of an English officer was deemed such a constraint as to induce him soon to relinquish horse-exercise altogether. He continues to sleep as little as in his days of activity, being accustomed to wake so early as three in the morning, when a light is brought to him and he begins to read or write. He was at first employed in learning English, and afterward in composing an historical sketch of his campaigns. His Italian constitution fortifies him against the effects of heat, but the moisture of the situation has made him liable to cough and rheumatism. Admiral Sir P. Malcolm did not succeed in giving him satisfaction: but 'that officer,' says Las Casas, 'had at least a heart; while the present governor has not a vestige of the character of an Englishman.' As to the disposition of the inhabitants, the arrival of so remarkable a stranger was at first deemed an advantage: but the restrictions, now imposed on the intercourse of merchant-vessels, are very unfavourable to trade, and make the people deeply regret that Bonaparte ever came among them.

The letter containing these details was given privately by Las Casas to a servant, who undertook to get it conveyed to Europe: but from his hands it passed into those of Sir Hudson Lowe, who considered this attempt at a clandestine correspondence as a sufficient reason for sending the writer off the island; and no vessel for Europe being there at that time, M. de Las Casas and his son were embarked for the Cape of Good Hope. Here the governor, Lord Charles Somerset, refused to send them on to England, and detained them during seven months, waiting for instructions. At the end of this time, Las Casas was allowed to embark for England: but, on the vessel reaching the Thames, his papers were taken from him, and he himself was carried out of the country. Proceeding to Ostend, he was made to traverse the Netherlands as a prisoner, and was not discharged from restraint until he reached Frankfort, when the Austrian government consented to grant him a residence in their dominions. All this is related in a letter to Lord Bathurst, who lost no time in sending over to Las Casas the papers taken from him on his arrival in the Thames.

With respect to the treatment of Las Casas, it must be admitted that a degree of harshness has been shewn, particularly at the Cape of Good Hope: but, with regard to the major question, viz. the complaints of Bonaparte, we do not see that much new or cogent matter is brought forwards in this publication. Ministers have evinced lately a disposition to a partial relaxation; the instructions sent out in October to Sir Hudson Lowe, and published in the news-papers in the interest of government, allowing the Ex-Emperor to associate under certain restrictions with the inhabitants of the island. It is admitted in this work (p. 96.) that the late publication, intitled " A Manuscript from St. Helena," is an imposture; and in another part (p. 137.) we are told that the interviews between Napoleon and passengers from India are grossly misrepresented in our news-papers. Of Mr. Warden's book, no notice whatever is taken. — On the whole, the impression produced by this publication is favourable to the integrity of M. de Las Casas; who seems a stranger to the habitual duplicity of Bonaparte, and to have been dazzled, like a great number of his countrymen, by the splendour of his talents and the plausibility of his language. The translation is very indifferently executed.

Art. 20. *Mémoires Secrets*, &c. Secret Memoirs of the Life, Private, Political, and Literary, of Lucien Buonaparte, Prince of Canino; composed from his Correspondence, and from Authentic unpublished Documents. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 463. 18s. Boards. Printed and suppressed at Paris in 1815; reprinted in London for Colburn. 1818.

A short notice prefixed to these Memoirs apprizes the reader that they passed through the press at Paris in 1815, but that their publication was prevented by unforeseen obstacles; an agent of Lucien, it is said, interfered, and prevailed on the bookseller by a pecuniary consideration to relinquish his intended enterprize, and to promise to give up the MS. ' This,' adds the editor of these Memoirs, ' was performed only by halves: the publication did not take place, but the MS. was preserved, and is now offered to the public. *It would be tedious to shew by what combination of circumstances* that MS. fell into our hands: but a perusal of it will be sufficient to prove its authenticity, and to shew that it could not have been written but by a personal witness of the events which it relates.'

After this preamble, and an *avant-propos* in the same tone, we are introduced to the *Mémoires Secrets* themselves, and informed that Lucien, the third son of Charles Bonaparte, was born in Corsica in 1779: in the next page, we are told that he was twelve years of age in 1789; and in p. 26. that in 1795, at the time of his first marriage, he was *only twenty-one*. These contradictions led us immediately to scrutinize certain points in the narrative with which, from particular circumstances, we happened to be intimately acquainted: viz. the proceedings connected with the death of the Duc d'Enghien in 1804; the interview between Napoleon and Lucien at Mantua in 1808; the temporary residence of Lucien's eldest daughter at Paris in 1810; the departure of Lucien from Italy in that year; and, finally, his abode among ourselves until 1814. With regard to all these transactions, which are certainly not the least interesting in the life of this remarkable character, we found the writer of these memoirs extremely deficient in information; and we have no hesitation in pronouncing that his book is not only unauthorized by Lucien himself, but is not even derived from the report of persons in his confidence. We were struck also with the ridiculous assertions (vol. i. p. 146.) relative to Madame Lucien; and, although an *amende honorable* is made for these by publishing in the Appendix a letter from a correspondent who professes to correct certain mistakes in the book, an acknowlegement of partial error can by no means be a counterpoise to the general misrepresentations of the work. It is, in fact, like most of these mysterious pieces of biography, nothing more than an experiment on the credulity of the public, contrived by one of the ingenious fraternity termed booksellers' authors; who, possessing an acquaintance with the leading events of the time, and being familiar with the rumours current in the *salons de Paris,* contrives to mould the whole into the form of a narrative, and, in order to stimulate the curiosity of his readers, then gives it the imposing name of *Mémoires Secrets.* What favourable opinion can be formed of one who writes repeatedly M. Twnam for Mr. Dickinson, and asserts (vol. ii. p. 46.) that 'Ludlow is the *capital of the principality of Wales?*'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 21. *Double Entry by Single,* a New Method of Book-keeping, applicable to all kinds of Business; and exemplified in Five Sets of Books. By F. W. Cronhelm. 4to. pp. 378. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Book-keeping, like agriculture, is practised by a class of men who look very little into scientific treatises, and are inclined to imagine that no method can be preferable to that which has been handed down to them by their predecessors. We are, however, of a different opinion, and conceive that the labours of the closet may be applied with advantage to the system of mercantile accounts; in which, from time to time, greater alterations have occurred than most men engaged in the hurry of business are aware. We shall accordingly enter with some minuteness into the question, though it is of interest only to mercantile men.

In the last age, the customary method was to record every transaction as it happened in a waste-book; this was copied, in a fair and frequently unaltered form, into the journal; after which came the ledger, which, properly speaking, is but an index to the journal. Farther experience shewed the practicability of dispensing with the waste-book, and of posting the journal at once from the cash-book, the bill-book, the account of sales-book, &c.; in short, from the different books appropriated in an extensive business to each particular department. Benjamin Booth's book-keeping, published in 1789, is one of the best illustrations of this method, which is called Italian; although that epithet belongs less to the improved plan just mentioned than to the important change of double for single entry, that was introduced several centuries ago in the account-books of the merchants of Venice, Genoa, and other Italian cities.

The next step in the improving process was to dispense with certain repetitions, particularly in the journal. Many mercantile houses have adopted the plan of making no journal-entries for cash-transactions, but of posting these entries at once from the cash-book into the ledger. We took notice, in our lxxivth vol., of a treatise on book-keeping by a Mr. Power, which recommended the application of this plan to other transactions as well as cash, and proposed to dispense with a journal *in toto.* Mr. Cronhelm proceeds, as far as we can unravel his diffuse and prolix explanations, on a similar plan; preferring the mode of posting into the ledger directly from the cash-book, bill-book, account of sales-book, &c. to the common method of using the journal as an intermediary. His volume exhibits (pp. 20, 21, 22.) specimens of the application of the proposed plan, in which we perceive nothing either very original or very convenient; because the journal, as at present used, is not merely a repetition, but an improved classification of entries. We should, however, willingly bestow a share of encomium on Mr. C.'s plan, were not his explanations encumbered with so many needless preliminaries. He begins by a chapter on the theory of book-keeping, and proceeds to illustrate his metaphysical notions of 'equilibrium, positive property, neutral-property, negative property,' &c., with as much minuteness as if he were addressing a society of academicians. Every thing in the shape of philosophical disquisition should have been avoided; his plan should have been presented, briefly and clearly, in the shape of examples, and the comparison with other methods have been postponed until the reader was thoroughly acquainted with the one now laid before him.

Mr. C.'s name is of German origin; and, though his style in English is not tinctured with foreign idioms, his prolixity and desire of treating every thing *ab ovo* strongly suggest the idea of his being a native of that part of the Continent. He has printed an expensive quarto, when a humble octavo or duodecimo would have sufficed; there being certainly no necessity for such long specimens of the books of wholesale dealers, manufacturers, bankers, or even of merchants. We must object also to the introduction of incongruous suppositions, such as exhibiting the same merchant as a dealer in cotton and in wine, a partner in a bank, and finally a proprietor of land. On the whole, though we do not dissent so much as practical men commonly do from the general views taken by such writers as Mr. C., we must repeat that plainness and brevity are indispensable characteristics of such treatises; without which, they have very little chance of a favourable reception from men of business, whose habit it is to pass quickly over the general argument, and fix their attention on the practical result.

So much difference prevails in the situation of individual merchants, that it is a matter of no little difficulty to frame a system of book-keeping that shall be applicable to the body at large: but in this, as in other branches, improvements are best made by persons following book-keeping as a separate employment. Such persons would, after a certain degree of experience, acquire an almost intuitive readiness in pointing out to a mercantile house the shortest and clearest method of keeping their books; and, were the task of posting and balancing made a distinct occupation, we should hear very little of those delays and errors which at present exist in many more establishments than the public imagine. The chief objection to this subdivision of labour, and to the employment of persons who keep the books of other merchants also, would be an apprehended disclosure of the affairs of the house: but these are at present confided to the different clerks in the establishment, whose prudence or honour are under no particular safeguard. A book-keeper must, from the nature of his employment, have arrived at the years of discretion; and his extent of business would depend on his fidelity and reserve, in the same way with the business of an attorney or a physician, of whose indiscretion society has in general no reason to complain. Secrecy in mercantile transactions becomes less and less an object in proportion as a concern is extended, and the partners are rendered sensible by liberal views of the inutility of the precautions taken by traders in small towns: but, even if the case be considered otherwise, an easy remedy would be found in adopting the use of a private ledger, to be kept by one of the partners, and to contain the accounts which explain salaries, profit, capital, &c.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 22. *Reflections on the Death of Sir Samuel Romilly:* delivered at Essex-Street Chapel, November 8. 1818. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hunter.

From Isaiah, ii. 22., "Cease ye from man, whose breath is in his nostrils: for wherein is he to be accounted of?", Mr. Belsham dilates, in a peculiarly eloquent, pathetic, and impressive strain, on the melancholy catastrophe which had occurred but a few days previously; and which, only twelve months after an event that had occasioned the sincerest and deepest public grief, had 'again burst open the wounds of the nation, and caused them to bleed afresh.' His rapid view of the life and patriotic labours of Sir Samuel Romilly is delicately and yet forcibly touched; and while, in speaking of the afflictive termination of the existence of that eminent individual, the preacher betrays the feelings of a man, he suggests with zealous impressiveness the moral and religious reflections to which it should give rise. The favourite doctrine of Mr. Belsham seems to be, that the world is in a state of gradual improvement, and will ultimately arrive at perfection: — certainly a delightful system, and one which every benevolent mind must at least *wish* to believe. The following passages will shew the nature of Mr. B.'s opinion, and afford a specimen of his eloquence:

'There is a progressive march in human affairs. Knowledge gradually advances: nor is it in the power of bigots, tyrants, or oppressors, to arrest its progress. But knowledge is power. And power is liberty. And knowledge and liberty generate virtue. And these combined together produce individual and national prosperity and happiness. The progress of the public mind is rapid; it advances with a continually accelerated step. The influence of public opinion is irresistible: and the march of public amelioration, though silent, and by many unobserved, is real and wonderful.

'The moral and political state of the world is amazingly improved in the course of the last fifty years; and practices which half a century ago were tolerated, and even common, would not now be endured. Who in these days speaks of a slave-trader but with indignation and horror? and who would not scorn to associate with him? What petty continental despot will now presume to sell his subjects to a foreign prince, to be sent on barbarous expeditions to a far distant shore, to be butchered five thousand miles from home? And since Romilly pleaded the cause of the oppressed and suffering Protestants of France, where will the bloody fiend of religious persecution dare to lift her accursed brow? In the more enlightened and civilized nations of Europe, religious liberty is the order of the day; and it is the happy and highly meritorious fashion of the age, that religious distinctions shall make no difference in civil privileges. And even in Catholic Rome, Protestant worship is publicly tolerated. These are indeed large steps in the progress of moral and political improvement. And public opinion goes still further than existing institutions, and often mitigates the rigour of severe and unjust laws, and gradually paves the way to a more enlarged and liberal order of things.

'Let then the lovers of liberty, the lovers of truth and peace, the lovers of good order and good government, the lovers of their country, and its glorious constitution, remain at their post, and discharge their duty with fidelity and fortitude. And while they deeply lament the fall of a great man, let them recollect that additional duties are now incumbent upon survivors, and by the exertion of additional energies let them endeavour to alleviate the public loss, and to make it less sensibly and severely felt. Let every one manifest his veneration for the departed patriot by emulating his transcendent virtues, and especially his love to his country and to mankind, his prudence, his patience, his active zeal, and his perseverance in his god-like efforts to abate human misery, to lessen human guilt, and to ameliorate the condition of mankind. And then, though no one individual can reasonably hope to reach the lofty eminence of their admired exemplar, yet the combined sum of virtuous exertion may together exceed in its effects the most successful efforts of any individual, however distinguished and illustrious: and the public may eventually sustain no real loss.'

Art. 23. *Occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Robert Simpson,* D.D., late Theological Tutor of Hoxton Academy, December 21st, 1817, in the 72d Year of his Age: delivered at the Meeting-House, Pell-street, Ratcliffe-Highway, January 4th, 1818. By Thomas Cloutt. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Conder.

Dr. Simpson, whose death is here lamented, and whose virtues are panegyrized, was for twenty-seven years tutor in the Academy at Hoxton; and he appears to have been a man of great industry and zeal in his vocation. In his preaching, he was remarkable for his loud and impassioned vehemence. Mr. Cloutt tells us, p. 46., that '*he was a son of thunder*, and the sinner under his addresses *seemed to hear the gates of the bottomless pit crash upon their hinges, and see the flames breaking forth upon him while he cried*, " Behold ye despisers, and wonder, and perish; escape for your life; fly from the wrath to come; who among you can dwell with everlasting burnings?" — In a note, p. 46., Mr. C. has mentioned also a little circumstance, which appears to us very appositely and inartificially to characterize the impetuous ranting of Dr. Simpson and others of the same school. 'When I was at Hoxton,' he says, 'I remember saying to a lad, who lived in the house, after hearing Dr. Simpson, " Well, John, what did you think of your master?" " Why," said he, " I liked him very well, but *I did not see why he need have been in such a rage about it.*" It seems, however, that Dr. S. could not help *being in a rage about it;* for he was " *a Calvinist to the back-bone.*" A short time before his death, it was his devout wish that he might be able to preach once more, in order to make '*the cliffs of Dover ring with the sound of salvation through the blood of the Lamb.*' We suppose that he would have roared as loud as Mars when he was wounded by Diomed;

Ὅσσον τ᾽ ἐννεαχιλοι ἐπίαχον, ἢ δεκάχιλοι
Ἀνέρες ἐν πολεμω. Il. E. 860.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The letter from Sir J. Ed. Smith was received so late in the month that we have not had time to communicate with one of our Board, to whom it refers, and who is at present far distant from London.

If the writer of the letter signed X. be really the person described in it, the Editor invites him to disclose his real name, &c., that he may discuss the subject of it in person with him; and he particularly desires that no false feeling of delicacy may prevent *his friend* X. from complying with this request.

A letter has lately been forwarded to *W. M. S.*, but no answer to it has been received, though desired.

The communication from the *King's Head, in the Poultry*, is adapted to the pages of a Magazine, not to those of a Review: unless as an advertisement on the cover.

☞ The GENERAL INDEX to eighty-one Volumes of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review is ready for delivery to subscribers, (who are requested to send to Pall Mall for their copies,) in two large vols. 8vo. price 2l. 2s.; and to non-subscribers at 2l. 12s. 6d.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For DECEMBER, 1818.

Art. I. *Samor, Lord of the Bright City*, an Heroic Poem. By the Rev. H. H. Milman, M. A. Fellow of Brazenose College, Oxford, and Vicar of St. Mary's, Reading. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 368. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

If any of our constant readers should chance to remember the persevering and ardent zeal, with which we have endeavoured for a long series of years to retard the decline and to diminish the corruptions of our native literature, they may be able, in part, to anticipate our feelings of hopelessness, when we enter on a new poetical production of the nineteenth century.

The present age, indeed, has been unfortunately prolific in writers of acknowleged ability but of most imperfect taste; who have forsaken the noble path of their classical predecessors; and, mistaking the fitful flashes of enthusiasm for the regular illuminations of genius, have presented us with compositions of which the scattered beauties have been the sure forerunners of some new aberration from the standard of correctness. That we have here overcharged the picture of our degeneracy, no competent and unprejudiced judge will, we believe, be ready to maintain: for, so numerous are the examples which we might allege in support of our opinion, that every modern library, circulating or stationary, in the United Kingdom, will bear witness to its truth. The fatal celebrity and seductive talents of several contemporary poets have led the way to this rapid and universal barbarism; and it would be amusing, indeed, were it not too painful a subject, to consider, meanwhile, the unconscious self-applauses of the imitative multitude, and that unblushing arrogance with which they attribute to themselves all the condensed excellence of their most renowned ancestors. Elated with their popular mimicry of the more antiquated portion of the style of Elizabeth and James, and fancying that they have discovered in their own minds a profundity of thought which disdains to be conveyed in the less ponderous language of a later period, they have adopted a phraseology unknown to their own times, and which was judiciously discarded by the writers of our most correct and classical æra of literature. Grown more daring from their disgraceful success, they have even ventured to direct their blunt arrows against the immortal reputation of those great authors, who illuminated the reigns of William, Anne, and her two successors; sometimes insinuating, and sometimes audaciously asserting, that those writers, however brilliant in wit, were yet deficient in comprehensiveness of understanding; unequal in originality to their ruder favourities; too closely formed on the models of Greece and Rome; and rather to be classed among the slaves of taste, than among the free-born sons of genius. To refute a charge of which ignorance is the basis, and conceit the superstructure, would be a waste of time, unworthy of any pen but that of the solemn triflers whom we here expose to ridicule. One short essay of Swift, one biting paragraph of Pope, would settle a dispute which has been raised only by the unabashed clamour of the dull, and prolonged by the spiritless silence of their superiors.

It would lead us much too far from our immediate subject even to enumerate the mighty offenders in prose and verse, who, since the irreparable loss of Johnson, have "rushed in," and contaminated our noble language. There seems to be no fear of criticism, public or private, before the eyes of these monsters of the press: their very fearlessness, indeed, is interpreted by their blind admirers as a proof of their commanding ability; and yet it would seem strange to a reflecting mind that these prodigies of genius should uniformly recur, for the model of their style, to a race of writers who, with all their undoubted depth and vigour of intellect, must be allowed by any but their weakest votary to have been deficient in the government of the imagination; and most of whom, like all other revivers of literature, were dazzled and perplexed by the profusion of their own treasures. To make use without pedantry of the newly discovered stores of knowlege, and to combine selection and propriety of expression with the first awakening inspirations of thought, are attainments too difficult for the early writers of any nation. Unseasonable flashes of wit, splendid images incongruously associated, and new ideas not yet fully developed, must be the characteristics of their compositions. He, therefore, who is not contented with an admiration of their high Lucretian beauties, but prefers the whole contexture of their style to that of more uniform and Virgilian writings, must, in our opinion, rest his hopes of lasting popularity on the continued corruption of his native tongue;

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tongue; must deprecate the revival of an Augustan taste among us; and by all the quibbles of sophistry and all the arts of venality, advanced by his main defenders or practised by his underlings, must endeavour to retard so glorious a resurrection.

That too large a portion of the faults of his predecessors adhered to the gigantic author of The Paradise Lost; we should have regarded as a point long ago determined, did we not daily witness some vain attempt to imitate his inimitable excellences. Where this erroneous adoption of his studied manner is combined with a copy of the looser versification of our old tragedians, that singular anomaly is produced which we see presented in the *vexatious* poem before us. We apply this epithet to the heroic Samor, because, at the same moment that he displays with double force the acknowleged genius of Fazio, he *vexes* us by the laboured union of the dramatic dialogue of Massinger, or Ford, with the epic soliloquy of Milton.

> " *Mortua quin etiam jungebat corpora vivis.*"

He unites also the familiarity of modern conversation with the stateliness of the " older time," and has altogether produced a *mêlange* unrivalled by the works of any melo-dramatist of the day, — from the pantomime of Pizarro to the Olla-podrida of Lalla Rookh. We have purposely selected two authors of great genius as the subjects of comparison with Mr. Milman, in their severally incorrect designs; whether of uniting the spectacle and the tragedy, the narratives of prose and verse, or of jumbling all things into one epico-dramatico-lyrico-modern-antique composition.

The classical taste or rather the Latinized frame of the style of Milton, united with the peculiar strength and brevity of his construction, form altogether a phænomenon in poetical language; which, in our judgment, no worthy follower of that immortal bard would attempt to imitate. Accustomed to convey his thoughts by this original but by no means English instrument, he acquired a facility and a command in its application, which perhaps no habit would impart to an inferior or even to *any* other imagination. We should conceive, indeed, that the improbability of success would in future deter all reflecting persons from the attempt in question. It is improbable, *à priori*, that the constant practice of Latin composition (filling the memory with all its idiomatic forms of inversion) should again concur, in one individual, with those peculiar circumstances which compelled, as it were, an inwardness and a condensation of the workings of mind in Milton; and which, gradually no doubt, but with full effect in the end, produced a mode of thinking and of expressing those thoughts in him, that is as yet discoverable in no other author: but, moreover, the very fact of the failure of the imitation, in such repeated instances, should really at last render the undertaking entirely hopeless. Whatever may be the opinion of readers on this point, (a point, we are convinced, of much consequence to the complete success of the future efforts of poetic genius in England,) at all events it must, we suppose, be granted that, in any imitation of so peculiar and artificial a style, uniformity of manner is essential in the imitator; that no allowable relaxation of taste can tolerate the admixture of the phraseology of more careless authors with that of Milton, be they of a period ever so near his own; and, *à fortiori*, that no modern and wholly unclassical versification can be allowed a share in the page which aims at the dignified and full-dressed appearance of our great epic specimen. Weighed in this balance, we fear that the ingenious work before us would be found lamentably wanting; for assuredly it does not manifest regularity of style in any part of it. On the contrary, every page exhibits, to our apprehension, a grotesque mixture of Shakspearian and Miltonic imitation: the freedom of theatrical colloquy familiarly shaking hands with the unbending dignity of heroic narration: modes of obsolete Saxon are intermarried with the most hostile forms of translated Latin; and we feel like the spectators of a ruined Roman villa, half restored to a habitable residence by the incongruous and desultory trowel of a Gothic architect.

> "Oh 'tis a wonderous patchwork!—it awakes,
> Meseems, Mosaic phantoms interlaced
> With fairy chequers of a world gone by:—
> 'Tis old, 'tis new—by Heaven! 'tis any thing." *Anon.*

We come now to the proof: we have long been preparing the pudding, and we doubt not that our readers are eager to eat it.

The story of Samor may be told in a few words: for it is, in fact, nothing more than an historico-poetico sketch of the state of Britain at and near the time of the marriage of Vortigern and Rowena; and indeed we may observe, *en passant*, that the poem nearly as much resembles the works of those whose style it imitates, as the celebrated imposture of Mr. Ireland * resembled one of them. The character of the hero, who delivers his country from the Saxon yoke, has however much original merit; and we are far from being insensible to the frequent display of the same striking powers, throughout the protracted events of the epopee: but, considered as a whole, it *hangs heavy on the hand.* Indeed, this could not well be otherwise; when, in addition to the grotesque and almost monkish mixture of languages which we have mentioned, it is observed that the course of the narrative is interrupted by digressions, clogged by repetitions, and spread abroad into all the diffuseness of the poet's own reflections. Such things, we know, are little heeded in this our sublime æra: but it may be well, perchance, for the regulated and docile minds of some distant generations, (if such be yet fated to arise among us,) that, even at the commencement of the nineteenth century, one voice was raised in England, daring enough to defend consistency of plan, contrasted variety of character, sustained interest of story, free and natural flow of expression, and melodious majesty of versification, as indispensable qualities in a poem that shall be worthy to arouse the sympathy of its own age, and to descend with honour to posterity.

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* The play of Vortigern and Rowena.

Among the lengthened episodes of Samor, the first that attracts our notice is the portentous journey of Caswallon to the shrine of the northern deities. This ferocious British traitor was, we conclude, a necessary ingredient in a modern epic. His brutal courage, his utter want of principle, his inconsistent bursts of paternal affection, his wild fondness for a son, and his accursed murder of a daughter, render him so grand and so attractive a personage, that the author would have consulted his present poetical reputation in a much greater degree by selecting *him* for the hero of his poem, rather than the more tamely virtuous and insipidly patriotic Samor. It seems impossible, indeed, for the delicate dispensers of contemporary fame to "sup *too* full of horrors:" they have an appetite for superb immorality, which no exhibition of heroic vice seems bold enough to satisfy. If we watch the growing capacity of their stomach, only down from Marmion to Bertram, we must be persuaded that Mr. Milman has done wrong in not resting his popularity on Caswallon.

In so corrupt a period of literature, as corrupt in poetical ethics as in taste, we have however to tender our cordial thanks to Mr. Milman for the general purity and loftiness of sentiment which adorn his poem. Were it possible to peruse the whole with unrelaxed attention, (a task deserving the honours of martyrdom,) we have no doubt that the coldest Briton might imbibe a patriotism highly serviceable in his department: but, meanwhile, we cannot help thinking that this effect must be lessened, in all cases of ordinary perseverance, by those aforesaid repetitions in the poem, to an illustrious example of which we now summon the attention of our readers. The noble hero of the story *twice* visits the afflicting scene of his ruined home. Such a double call on the sympathy of the reader cannot but remind him of the "*two evening guns*" of *the* CRITIC: but, alas! it is not only in these great and leading incidents that the sin of repetition so easily besets the present author. In the meritorious perusal of Samor, we are constantly in the state of the good Vicar of Wakefield, who, when he saw Mr. Jenkinson again, thought that he had heard the substance of his harangue before.

"*Commencez par le commencement*" is one of those good old established rules of criticism, which gains in soundness what it loses in novelty. We shall, therefore, without farther apology, introduce our readers to the first book and first line of Samor:

> 'Land of my birth, Oh Britain! and my love,
> Whose air I breathe, whose earth I tread, whose tongue
> My song would speak, its strong and solemn tones
> Most proud, if I abase not. Beauteous Isle,
> And plenteous!'

According to our conception of poetic language and feeling, it is scarcely possible for a writer to violate either more grossly, or rather to be more completely destitute of both, than Mr. M. in this exordium. To say nothing of the feeble conclusion of the first line, in which the land of the poet's *birth* is, we should hope, tautologously stated to be also the land of his *love*, it would surely be difficult to find another specimen, even in our own times, of equal aukwardness with the following:

> '*Whose air I breathe, whose earth I tread, whose tongue*
> *My song would speak.*'

Is this poetry? Is it not

> "*Stridenti miserum stipulâ disperdere carmen?*"

We take a passage of a different sort of excellence, from the speech of the royal Vortigern to his new Saxon friends:

> '"For YE our baths float cool and clear, our air
> Is redolent with garland wreathes, and rich
> Within our royal citadel is crown'd
> For ye the banquet; welcome once again,
> Mighty to save, and potent to defend!"'

It is not to the curious discovery of *floating baths* at this early period that we are adverting, but to the royal violation of grammar in the use of the nominative for the oblique case; a licence which, we conclude, the author of this heroic poem will not be ready to defend on the authority of "Bucks have at *ye* all!" — or any similar familiarities.

The description, or rather the brief digression, excited by the Tower of London, is thus intelligibly expressed:

> —— 'the work
> Of the great Cæsar. Danger he and dread
> Of Rome and Pompey; yet 'gainst savage foes
> Vantage of trench and tower and massy wall
> Scorn'd not, so swift, so perilous, so fierce
> Cassivelan his painted charioteers
> Whirl'd to the frantic onset, standing forth
> Portent of freedom mid a world enslav'd.'

Why has the last line of this passage, with all its pomposity, an effect so greatly superior to that of any of its brethren? Plainly because it flows uninterrupted by harsh cadences and discordant pauses, and is guiltless of that *perversion* of English, or *inversion* of Latin, which delights in placing the accusative case before the verb that governs it: as we see it again immediately, and indeed in every page following, loaded with additional involutions and contortions of grammar.

> 'With faint effeminate flattery the soul
> Guiling of manhood.'

How would it be possible to make a full-grown foreigner, or a native child, understand that this is English? The great distinction of the natural and philosophical order of language must be wholly subverted, and the later tongues must exchange their fundamental qualities with the antient, before such usages can be authorized in their excessive frequency. We cannot mean to lay an interdict on *any* dislocation of the English order, in the loftier and more animated efforts of poetry; nor can we be supposed to forbid the judicious use of this liberty, whatever be the mood of song: but we maintain that to make the whole contexture of poetic style of an antient instead of a modern character; to deviate so far from the first excellence of Dryden, and to adopt so servilely the worst fault of Milton, as to crowd the page with every mode of inversion; that such a practice is to labour ingloriously in the corruption of our language. We are aware that some persons consider these points as of little consequence: but narrow and unobservant must be the mind, that is either incapable of comprehending, or has failed to remark, the wonderful union that exists between a free and natural flow of expression, and a just and masculine energy of thought. Amid the mass of feeble nonsense which deluges our press, it is the barbarous style alone which each successive authorling imitates. Each has his own puny alteration of his predecessor's ideas to bring forwards, as a wonderous novelty; and, indeed, so eternally new is Folly, that all her sons may here be considered to stand alone: but, perceiving that universal toleration which attends every increasing licence in the use of our now truly Gothic language, the emptiest candidate for literary fame may be sure, in this respect at least, to escape the bolts of popular criticism.

In all the laboured affectation that has so lamentably misled Mr. Milman to adopt a style which, at the present period, cannot be made his own, we yet constantly descry a secret consciousness that, in order to close a passage with effect, he must close it like an Englishman. We have seen one instance of this above, and we here subjoin another:

> —— ' when that scourg'd Icenian Queen
> Through the square legions drove her car; were heard
> Her brazen wheels to madden, the keen scythes
> Gride through their iron harvest; then rush'd route,
> Wail'd havoc; seem'd Bonduca fiercer urg'd
> The trampling steeds; behind her silence sank
> Along the dreary path of her revenge.'

We know that it has been urged by the advocates of discord, that the broken rhythm of our obsolete and our recent authors lends the powerful charm of contrast to their interspersed melodies: but, as we have often contended, variety is always to be produced by the hand of a master within the limits of harmony. Thus also may every various mode of diction, suited to every strain of poetry, be found within the lawful compass and character of the English language. Let us not borrow from the classics more than our real wants demand. Though willing, nay delighted, to adopt their pregnant conciseness of phraseology, *as far as it is compatible with the genius of our tongue*, let us not be induced, by too close an imitation, to imagine that we also can dispense with all barbarous appendages; and, by the omission of the article, the substitution of singular for plural, and other innumerable freaks of modern Gothicism, reduce ourselves into a *polished nation* articulating a *savage dialect*. It is strange indeed that, at the very moment when we are most distant from the dignified objects, the well regulated imagination, and the moral design of the classical authors; when in our most popular examples we seem to throw away all the benefit of our superior Christian knowlege; we should yet, at that very time, presume to array our confessedly inferior tongue in the incommunicable attributes that adorned the languages of Greece and Rome.

Having noticed some instances of pedantry, (for of all errors that deserve this name, the unnecessary *dismemberment* of sentences holds the first place,) we now turn to another mode of conceit that disfigures the better qualities of this imperfect writer. The minute observation of particular features in female beauty we hold to be indicative of a *dillettante* taste in poetry. Although we might describe this taste as abounding in that sort of sentimental anatomy, which dwells long and tenderly on an eye, a lip, or a forehead, a nose, a chin, or an ear, yet we rather choose to characterize it in negative terms; and to say that it is *not* the power of mind which led Pope to exclaim,

> " 'Tis not an eye, or lip, we beauty call;
> But the joint force and full result of all:"

that it is *not* the *beautiful* feeling which bursts out in Basil, when he says,

> " Marked you her hand? — I heeded not her hand:"

but we cannot help being fully assured that it *is* the taste, and it *is* the feeling, which induced this author to write the following lines:

> —— ' her hair
> Cluster'd, as from an orb of gold cast out
> A dazzling and o'erpowering radiance, save
> Here and there on her snowy neck repos'd
> In a sooth'd brilliance some thin wandering tress.
> The azure flashing of her eye was fring'd
> With virgin meekness, and her tread, that seem'd
> Earth to disdain, as softly fell on it
> As the light dew-shower on a tuft of flowers.'

Here, too, in the concluding line, we again meet the obvious artifice which we have before remarked. The passage *ends* naturally, and makes the preceding pedantry look like a studied rudeness of manner, adopted on purpose to enhance the graceful ease of the departing bow.

We shall next advert, with sincere pleasure, to a specimen in which we find little to blame and much to approve; — and it is the more gratifying because in these lines Samor, the hero, is first introduced to the scene of his future action. The ignoble nobles of Britain have just been drinking to the consummation of their own disgrace in the presence of Vortigern and Rowena:

> ' As mid the fabled Libyan bridal stood
> Perseus, in stern tranquillity of wrath,
> Half stood, half floated on his ancle plumes
> Out-swelling, while the bright face on his shield
> Look'd into stone the raging fray; so rose,
> But with no magic arms, wearing alone
> Th' appalling and control of his firm look,
> The solemn indignation of his brow,
> The Briton Samor; at his rising, awe
> Went abroad, and the riotous hall was mute;
> But like unruffled summer waters flow'd
> His speech, and courtly reverence smooth'd its tone.
> ' " Sovereign of Britain's sovereigns! of our crowns
> The highest! in our realm of many thrones
> Enthron'd the loftiest! mighty as thou art,
> Thou dost outstep thy amplitude of sway;
> Thine is our isle to govern, not to give;
> A free and sacred property hast thou
> In our allegiance; for a master's right
> Over our lives, our princedoms, and our souls,
> King Vortigern, as well mayst thou presume
> To a dominion o'er our winds, to set
> Thy stamp and impress on our light from heaven.
> This Britain cannot rest beneath the shade
> Of Saxon empire, this our Christian soil
> The harvest of obedience will not bear
> To Heathen sway; and hear me, Vortigern,
> The golden image that thou settest up,
> Like the pride-drunken Babylonian king,
> Though dulcimer and psaltery soothe us down
> To the soft humour of submission tame,
> We will not worship." — From the hall he past, (*pass'd,*)
> Thus saying. Him the island's brave and proud
> Follow'd, the high and fame-enamour'd souls,
> Never to Britain wanting, though in hours
> Loosest of revels soft, and wanton ease.'

It is evident that several of the objections, which we have urged against the author's style, are applicable to this passage: but it would be blindness indeed not to see the light, and it would be polar ice not to be penetrated by the warmth, of such an appeal. — Why are we so soon again recalled to censure?

> ' *To check the Caledonian,* through your isle
> Marching by *wild light* of your burning towns.'

It was the *Caledonian* indeed, it was Walter Scott himself, who introduced this ' marching by *wild light,*' this following after an *ignis fatuus*, which has bewildered all the men of moderate minds among us, and has taught the beacons of genius to glitter with a destructive fire.

We cannot admire the taste of Samor's second address to King Vortigern. It savours of bombast. The subjoined simile, at least, appears to us to be no very happy mixture of the strong paroxysms of Nat. Lee with the bustling feebleness of Mason:

> ' " Monarch! the eaglet, were it smoothly nurst
> In the dove's *downy* nest, at its first flight
> Would shrink *down* dazzled from the morning sun;
> But with strong plumes refresh'd, anon 'twould claim
> Its old aspiring birthright, and unblench'd
> Bathe in the bickering of the noontide car." '

We have now clearly ascertained that to give specific reasons for one quarter of the numerous objections which we have made against this volume, or to redeem a small portion of the registered pledges of censure which absolutely clog our copy of Samor, would be a vain attempt, within the boundary of our whole Number for the present month. Having therefore sufficiently guarded ourselves against the imputation of indiscriminate reproof; and having afforded an ample clue to our readers, to discover what we apprehend to be the objectionable qualities of this author, in their several classes; we shall now append to our more general criticisms a particular enumeration of those passages which have struck us as the most faulty, among many offending brethren. For the aid of memory, we shall just prefix the general grounds of our reprobation, and shall leave our readers to assign to each quotation that note of censure which it seems to them to deserve. If, in the varied application of this scourge, some critics among our readers should mis-direct the lash, — should object to that passage as *pedantic* which we only intended to notice as *un-grammatical*, — or should find improper arrangement in the sentence, where we merely discovered discord in the verse, — such accidents are unavoidable; and we are far from advancing that the faults which we have noticed in any part are *all* that it contains, or that a severer judgment might not refuse to be charmed with those aërial strains of Samor, which float so near to heaven as to make us at least forget the earth whence they sprang. — Of these we shall fully speak, on parting from Mr. Milman: but at present we must discharge the unwelcome duty of specifying some of his numerous defects.

A farther Collection of unintelligible, pedantic, conceited, ungrammatical, inharmonious, bombastic, and otherwise improper Passages, in Samor.

A monarch inspiriting his people:

'The bulwark of a haughty spirit pour'd
From the thron'd Sovereign through her sons, were pride,
Were honour, might arrest Heaven's plumed hosts
And in their sphere-born music win renown.'

Gales floating about Rowena:

'Displaying what is exquisite display'd,
And thinly scattering the light veil where'er
Its shadowing may enhance the grace, and swell
With sweet officiousness the clustering hair
Where fairest tufts its richness, and let fall
Where drooping most becomes.'

End of the first book:

'Alone she came, alone she went not on.'

"*Jack and Gill went up the hill,*" &c. &c.

Description of the life of a hermit:

'His life was like a sleep, with heavenly sights,
And harmonies, as of angelic sounds
Visited ever, nor his barren heart
Touch'd not the light affections, trembled not
His spirit with love's fervent swell, but all
Most wont to bear man's soul to earth, round him
As the thin morning clouds around the lark,
Gather'd to float him upward to the heavens.'

Our readers, no doubt, will here discover a peculiarly aukward and displeasing inversion; while the opening and the conclusion have a poetical cast, and a tenderness of feeling, which are truly refreshing. Yet who but a practised offender, in his own twisted and cross-grained species of writing, could have penned the following sentence?

——'of God
The noblest service is to serve mankind.'

Deo optimè inservimus, cum benefacimus humano generi:—so Thomas à Kempis might have written: but who besides Mr. Milman would have thus *done* him into English verse?—

'The motion and the murmur of the deep,
The rushing of the silent, solemn sky,
Each in its deep abyss and pure expanse,
Seeming its secret mysteries of might,

Its ruling soul of everlasting change,
To veil from mortal knowledge, ever pour,
O'er savage ev'n and rude, tumultuous awe,
And exultation of a pleasing dread.
From dizzy notions of infinity,
Vague sense of ever-during sights and sounds,
Inactive though the body, the free spirit,
Vagrant along the illimitable void,
Perils uncouth and rich uncertainties
Ranges in restless round, plucks treasures rare,
That gem the caverns of the hoary deep,
Or bathes with sea-maids in their crystal bowers,
Or with gay creatures and fantastical
Peoples some dreamy land.'

ides the qualities which we leave to the discernment of readers in this sublime specimen, we cannot but observe additional charm of *mystification* which it acquires from Wordsworthian propensity to convert an *old something* of ught into a *new nothing* of expression. For our own part, must recommend the above lines to any clever actor of part of Grainger in "Who's the Dupe?", as an excellent ety for the rhapsody of English scholarship with which delights Old D'Oyly, and wins the hand of his fair ghter.

At p. 57. is a passage in which we have to notice, among ir other faults, the *Walter Scotticism* of the following s:

‘ Nor wants soft interchange of vale, where smiles
White mimicry of foliage and thin flower.
Feathery and fanlike spreads the leafy ice,
With dropping cup, and roving tendril loose,
As though the glassy dews o'er flower and herb
Their silken moisture had congeal'd, and yet
Within that slender veil their knots profuse
Blossom'd and blush'd with tender life, the couch
Less various where the fabled Zephyr fans
With his mild wings his Flora's bloomy locks.'

We add a Geographical Appeal:

‘ How desolate are now thy unplough'd waves,
Dark Baltic! wandering Elbe, thy icy breast
How silent of thy hunters. Sleep thou calm
Amid thy wanton vineyards, Gaul! no more
The blue-eyed Plunderers, bridging thy broad Rhine,
Waste thy inebriate harvest's clustering pride.
Sing songs of joy, soft Italy!'

Reflections on Man and Navigation:

—— ‘ Oh, that frail Man,
Loose-woven frame of dissoluble stuff,

Uncharter'd from the boisterous license rude
Of pitiless winds and fierce unfetter'd waves,
To that unshackled libertine, wild Chance,
Amenable, unguaranteed from burst
And inroad of invading surge, that he,
With such thin barrier between life and death,
Should sit and skim along the ocean waste,
Careless as maiden in a flowery field;
Valour or phrenzy is it! They their toil
Ply nimbly, and with gallant oar chastise
The insurgent billows, their despotic sail
Lords o'er the wild democracy of air.'

Here, as constantly, the only unobjectionable line is the last: — a line, too, that in *all* these instances we view with peculiar tenderness.

Meditation near a mill-stream:

'A sound is in the silent night abroad,
A sound of broken waters.' P. 79.

How beautifully quaint is this! — but the true German horrific soon succeeds to it; and a lover, finding a dead body in the water, sits anxiously waiting for a moon-beam to see whether it be not that of his mistress! — Our readers must be delighted with the nature of the ensuing address: it excels any thing of the sort, even in Romeo and Juliet:

—— 'Dawn forth
Thou tortoise-footed sluggard Morn! one beam,
Thou pitiless cold Moon!' P. 83.

The same subject continued:

'Lilian; ne'er thought I, I should live to loathe
Thy gentle presence. — Most ungrateful girl,
And I for thee forsook my warrior trust,
Was truant to my country's cause for thee.'

If this be a possible mode for a lover under such horrible circumstances to vent his grief, we hope never to encounter the like again.

The apostrophe to Lord Nelson, long before he was born, appears to us to be very *ab-original:*

'Oh Nelson! if the unborn soul distinct
Amid the loose infinity of space,
Be visited by apparitions dim
Of this earth's fleeting present, and inhale
Faint foretaste of its mortal passions, thou,
When, with usurping prow, that foreign fleet
Daunted thy Britain, thou didst surely yearn
To unordain'd maturity to force
Thy unripe being, to foreseize from Fate

Thy slow existence. Oh, the days must dawn,
When Saxon and when Briton melted off
All feud, all hate, all discord, of their strength
And valour blent th' abstract and essence rich,
One sword, one name, one glory, and one God,
From their bright armoury of captains, thee
Their chosen thunderbolt shall usher forth,
From the leagued nations' frantic grasp to wrest
Britain's allotted sceptre of the sea.' —

' Not now the rapture and the restlessness,
The riding and the racing, burst and shock,
And sudden triumph, or as sudden death;
Now long, long wasting of the limbs and life,
The circumspect cold strife, drear march, damp watch,
Forepining day, and vigilant sleepless night,
Eternal and interminable war,
Before them spreads its comfortless wide tract,
Gone all soft joys, all courtly luxuries gone:
The languor of the bath, the harp, the song
By twilight in the lady's sleepless porch,
The loitering in the sunny colonnade,
The circus, and the theatre, the feast
Usurping the mild midnight's solemn hours;
From holier hearts, the chapel and the prayer,
The matins, and melodious vesper hymn,
The bridal with its gay and jocund route,
The baptism with its revel, gone — all gone.
The burial on cold battle field, unhymn'd,
Unmourn'd, untomb'd; nor taper, tear, nor rite:
Gentle commercing between God and man
Broke off, save hasty prayer ere battle morn,
Cold orison upon the midnight watch.'

This is one of those numerous passages in Samor which sound to our ears more like a catalogue of things at a sale, "going, going, gone!" or an inventory of matters *to be* introduced into poetry, — more like materials, in a word, to be worked up on some future occasion, — than as a completely finished description.

' *Speaks frank and bold that grey Plenipotent.*' P. 93.

—— ' maniacs kindled up
With horrible intelligence *the pits*
Of their deep hollow eyes.' P. 103.

—— ' *th' holy* wine
(*Ineffable!*) flowed on the *pavement stone.*' P. 105.

End of the fourth book. — Yet the part, in which these ominous lines occur, is among those that we had marked for praise.

' Noon; from his high empyreal throne the Sun
Floods with broad light the living plain; more rich
Ne'er blaz'd his summer couch, when sea and sky,
In royal pomp of cloudy purple and gold,
Curtain his western chambers, breathing men
Gorgeous and numberless as those bright waves
Flash, in their motion, the quick light.' (P. 109.)

This novel conciseness in announcing the time of day will probably open the door for still farther improvements by future poets.

—— ' Still that wonderous voice,
Like vulture in the grisly wake of war,
Hovers, and flings on air his descant strange,
" Vengeance and Vigilance!" — in van, in rear,
Around, above, beneath, the clouds of Heaven
Enshroud it in their misty folds; earth speaks
From all her caves, " Vengeance and Vigilance!" ' (P. 132.)

Through the whole poem, but particularly in that portion of it in which the hero launches out into all the furies of *Christian revenge*, we perceive a strong resemblance, both in the main design of the composition and in the leading feature of the principal character, to " Roderick the Last of the Goths." Patriotic as both these heroes confessedly are, we would have had them *occasionally* remember that they are Christian Patriots, and, *at some odd times*, feel disposed to lament the bitter necessity of cutting throats which was imposed on them. We are aware, however, that, in this martial age, such a sentiment will by many be misunderstood; and, perhaps, by the majority not be understood at all: but to the reflecting few we address it; and, most certainly, it contains ample matter for reflection on the state of Christian feeling in this country at the present moment.

We must now, at one blow, cut off above sixty references to as many pages in the 6th, 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th books; in each of which pages we had marked several unpardonable extravagances, or failures of expression. Our limits will allow nothing farther, except an endeavour to direct our readers to some of the best examples of poetry which, in our judgment, are to be found in the volume; and, with a few intermingled remarks, we shall thus conclude our critique: dimly and faintly anticipating that, although we should wholly fail to awaken this author to the proper use of his high talents, we may perhaps deter some future genius from daring to take such unwarrantable liberties with the structure of his mother-tongue, or so wantonly to roughen the melodies of his native versification.

We have quoted the *debût* of the hero, in the first book; and we now beg to refer with much approbation to the opening of the second book, the council of the British warriors. The apparition and ironical congratulations of the Prophet Merlin, on the wedding of Vortigern and Rowena, might indeed be given as an instance of that laboured and mechanical sort of modern-antique manner, which we have so decidedly reprobated in the present publication: but, although the whole is debased by the unfortunate affectation of a quaint and obsolete turn of expression, no reader can be so dull as not to perceive a vivid energy of conception in the subjoined verses:

> ' Came it from earth or air, yon savage shape,
> His garb, if garb it be, of shaggy hair
> Close folding o'er his dusky limbs, his locks
> And waving matted beard like cypress boughs
> On bleak heath swaying to the midnight storm?
> Came he from yon deep wood? On the light spray
> No leaf is stirring. On the winged winds
> Rode he? No breeze awakes the noontide air.
> Mid that arm'd throng, dismaying, undismay'd,
> With a strange eye dilated, as unus'd
> To common sights of earth, and voice that seem'd
> Rarely to hold discourse with human ears,
> " Joy," and again, and thrice he uttered " Joy."
> Cower'd Horsa on his palsied steed; aghast,
> As toiling to despise the thing he fear'd,
> Sate Hengist. " Joy to bridegroom and to bride!
> Why should not man rejoice, and earth be glad?
> Beyond the sphere of man, the round of earth,
> There's loud rejoicing, 'tis not in the heavens!
> And many ministrant angels shake their wings
> In gladness, wings that are not plum'd with light.
> The dead are jocund, not the dead in bliss.
> Your couch is blest — by all whose blessings blast,
> All things unlovely gratulate your love.
> I see the nuptial pomp, the nuptial song
> I hear, and full the pomp, for Hate, and Fear,
> And excellent Dishonour, and bright Shame,
> And rose-cheek'd Grief, and jovial Discontent,
> And that majestic herald, Infamy,
> And that high noble, Servitude, are there,
> A blithsome troop, a gay and festive crew.
> And the land's curses are the bridal hymn;
> Sweetly and shrilly doth th' accordant Isle
> Imprecate the glad Hymenean song.
> So joy again, I say, to Britain's king,
> That taketh to his bosom Britain's fate,
> Her beautiful destruction to his bed.
> And joy to Britain's queen, who bears her lord

So bright a dowry and profuse, long years
Of war and havoc, and fair streams of blood,
And plenteous ruin, loss of crown and fame,
And full perdition of the immortal soul;
So thrice again I utter 'Joy,' 'joy,' 'joy!'" '

The "Tint, tint, tint," of the "Lay of the last Minstrel,"—the "Rode ye on the eddying smoke?" of Glenfinlas,—and the "Joy to young Nealling" of Kehama,—have all contributed to this wild but poetic effort.

Page 56. Here is a fine description of the snow-clad mountains: but we must omit it, and also the softer picture of the youthful Lilian, in page 70, 71.

The portents and prodigies, which occurred previously to the fatal feast on Ambri plain (Salisbury plain) are described with Virgilian majesty; and the warlike array of the Saxons is painted in lines which exhibit one of the author's best efforts to imitate Milton:

'Lordly they pass'd and lofty; other land
Save Britain, of such mighty despots proud,
Had made a boast of slavery; giant men
In soul as body. Not the Goth more dread,
Tall Alaric, who through imperial Rome
March'd conqueror, nor that later Orient chief,
Turban'd Mohammed, who o'er fall'n Byzance
His moony ensign planted: they, unarm'd,
Yet terrible, went haughty on, of power
A world to vanquish, not one narrow isle.'

The British women, expecting their husbands from the festal plain, are touchingly represented; and Samor alone at Stonehenge, after the massacre, is a sublime picture. His visit to the home of Evelene, whose lover has fallen at the feast, reminds us of the visit to the cottage of Hoel's widow, in Madoc.—We have already noticed the double return to his ruined home: but his first appearance there is very beautiful, with the exception of the trick of the child, so well adapted to a tragic pantomime of the day.

The extraordinary meeting of Samor and Rowena, in the second book, and their still more extraordinary visit to Caermerddhyn (Caermarthen), the seat of the unhappy Vortigern, doubtless presents some fine passages; particularly the more than Talbot-daring (see Shakspeare's Henry the Sixth) of Samor, when he has reason to expect treachery from Rowena.

Mr. M.'s description of the interview between Merlin and the hero, in the eighth book, although clouded with mystification, is yet striking; and the surrounding scenery of the glorious mountains of North Wales well suits the rencontre. The vision of the Fates of Britain is somewhat prolix, but full of poetical thoughts: — as the author has it,

> 'Heroic vauntings, *sumptuous imagings.*'

The scene at Caer Ebranc (York), where Caswallon ruled, and received the '*turgid laudings*' of his subjects, is boldly delineated. Samor here rises above even his usual heroism; and the deserted wretchedness of Vortimer, in the same book, (the ninth,) forms a touching contrast to this more than mortal energy. Till we come to the conceit about a grave for a fairy, (p. 265.) and allowing for the repulsive imitation of the older manner, which is always deemed necessary, the whole of this scene is very beautiful. In this book occurs the *repetition-visit* so repeatedly censured.

In the tenth book, Samor performs a most supernatural feat in rescuing the young bride of Pendragon (the British Prince) from his deadly enemy, Gorlois. Here he appears on St. Michael's mount, as before in Yorkshire, and in Wales. His ubiquity is prodigious. Kehama's eight divisions were not more simultaneously locomotive; nor those of lawyer Dowling, in Tom Jones. The lighting of the beacons, throughout the island, is certainly very grand, and perhaps forms one of the most truly poetical parts of the work. — In the eleventh book, we have a noble battle; the picture is quite Homeric; and the contest of Samor with Caswallon is highly spirited indeed. We are reminded also of Mezentius, infuriate after the death of his son. The final duel of Argantyr and the 'Avenger' shews the various powers of the author, and proves that he is not exhausted, even after much fighting.

Book XII. opens with a strong apostrophe to Freedom, which we are sorry that we cannot quote, for the sake of the subject; and, indeed, (*mutatis mutandis*) for the management of it. The panegyric on the House of Commons, which follows, would perhaps not be quite appropriate at present; when we are in fearful expectation of what may be the revived character of that honourable assembly, and are yet uncertain whether we shall meet our old acquaintance with a new face, or not! The trial of the captives in Westminster Hall, the acquittal of Argantyr, and the condemnation of Hengist, are all very good. The court is silent when the judge (Samor) appeals to the public voice for the sentence of Argantyr: but, when Hengist is summoned to answer for his crimes,

—— 'the first witness was a mighty cry,
As 'twere the voice of the whole isle, as hills
And plains and waters their abhorrence spake;
Hoarse harmony of imprecation seem'd
To break the ashy sleep of ruin'd towns,
And th' untomb'd slumbers of far battle vales.
As if the crowd about the judgment court
Did only with articulate voice repeat
What indistinct came down on every wind.
Then all the near, the distant, sank away,
Only a low and melancholy tone,
Like a far music down a summer stream
Remain'd; upon the lull'd, nor panting air
Fell that smooth snow of sound, till nearer now
It swell'd, as clearer water-falls are heard
When midnight grows more still. A funeral hymn,
It pour'd the rapture of its sadness out,
Even like a sparkling soporific wine.
But now and then broke from its low long fall,
Something of martial and majestic swell,
That spake its mourning o'er no vulgar dead.'

Here we shall end our long review of Samor: leaving the glimpses of the story which we have given to excite their own interest; and the powerful display of poetic genius, to which we have called attention, to atone for the various errors that stern duty has also commanded us to denounce.

Art. II. *Tales of my Landlord*, Second Series, collected and arranged by Jedediah Cleishbotham, Schoolmaster and Parish Clerk of Gandercleugh. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 12s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co. 1818.

The productions of this author have rendered society better acquainted with him in his literary than in his personal capacity; and, as the present volumes comprise no more than a single tale, they form the longest work which he has yet offered to our notice. This increase in the *length*, however, is so far from being attended by a proportional augmentation in the *merit* of his story, that we cannot attribute the absence of interest, with which we crawl on to its conclusion, to any other cause than the prolixity of the narrative itself; and which, in the last two of these volumes, becomes so tedious as to detract much not only from the sympathy that we ought to feel, but also from the probability and *vrai-semblance* which ought to exist, in the circumstances that are detailed. The same censure applies in a trifling degree to the two commencing volumes: but *there* it is more than compensated by the admirable connection of the incidents, the natural delineation it, or on which it can rest with rapture after they have been once recalled: on the contrary, they pass as rapidly before it, and leave as little trace of their passage on it, as the printless fabric of a vision; and the work must have fallen still-born from the press, had it not contained something of more sterling merit in the unwearied attention of Dominie Sampson to his impoverished mistress, — in the rustic hospitality and grateful enthusiasm of Dandie Dinmont to the preserver of his life, — in the intrepidity and indifference to crime which are evinced by Dirk Hatteraick, — and more than all, in the wild and savage grandeur of Meg Merrilies, "in whose madness there is method," and in whose method there is as undoubtedly madness. A similar observation belongs to the *Antiquary*, in whose incidents love engrosses so small a share as to be scarcely perceptible. In *Rob Roy*, the affection of Diana Vernon to Francis Osbaldiston occupies a very prominent situation; yet even there all the interest excited by it (which is far from being inconsiderable) shrinks into nothing, when compared with that which we feel in the hair-breadth escapes and romantic adventures of the chief Mac Gregor. In *Old Mortality*, which perhaps is superior to all the other compositions of the author, the sympathy and curiosity of the reader are so highly raised and so equally distributed throughout the work, that we know not whether any of the incidents can be said to be entirely unproductive of them. Without a doubt the attachment, which Edith Bellenden retains for Morton during all his fortunes, and even when hope seems desperate, gives its greatest charm to that inimitable production of fancy: but still, though such is the case, it is carefully placed in the back-ground of the picture, and attracts our notice and admiration more by the freshness and simplicity than by the warmth and brilliancy of the colours in which it is depicted. Unlike the common herd of writers, indeed, who would have indulged in long and tiresome effusions of mawkish sentimentality in order to convey to us an idea of the powerful passion which was kindled in the heart and revelling in the veins of that young and beautiful creature, the author has conveyed it to our senses by the mention of a word, the description of a look, and the delineation of a gesture; and he has been more successful in producing a conviction of her never fading love by the exertion of these simple means, than he possibly could have been by making her swear thousands of oaths of eternal constancy, or by practising any similar mummeries or absurdities of the German schools. In the present work, the anxiety and solicitude, which we feel for the fate of its principal characters, originate in sources very different from any of those which we have hitherto noticed. We see even from the first moment how all the love-story will conclude; and, as our interest dies at the same instant that our uncertainty ceases, we never care a straw about it. The entertainment, which these volumes afford, is derived from the strong emotions of pity and terror, with which we follow the recital of the Porteous-riots, and the misfortunes and trial of the fair Euphemia, or Effie. With that recital, our pleasure ceases; and it ceases only because the author chuses to play with the spindle of Omphale after he has been wielding the club of Hercules, and to wind a tedious journey round the foot of the mountain when he should have exerted his strength to carry his reader by a short passage over all its clefts, precipices, and acclivities.

The peculiarity, which we have just been pointing out, is one of those striking features that distinguish this author, as we said before, from the common mass of the writers of fiction; and from this peculiarity in the subject to which he directs his own and our attention, one of his principal excellences in our opinion is derived. While he carefully guards himself against touching, except incidentally, on the passion of love, and the refined sensibilities which are so intimately connected with it, he places himself under the necessity of recurring to those fierce and grand and terrible emotions of the soul, which he alone can depict as ably as he can ably controul and govern them.

Another peculiarity also appears in his manner of treating his subject, which is worthy of our observation. The remark, which Madame de Stael makes on epic poetry, that there is something in it too certain and something too unexpected, (*quelque chose d'inattendu,*) is equally just when applied to the generality of modern novels. The *too great certainty* occurs when the reader sees not only the "cork-jacket which is to carry the hero safe over all the billows of affliction," but also the occasions and the manner of its being used to ensure his preservation; and this entirely destroys all the pleasure, which would otherwise proceed from our fears regarding the destiny of its wearer. The something *too unexpected* is when, by an effect diametrically opposite to the too great certainty of the future, we are deprived of the pleasure of foreseeing the course of events at all; and it occurs whenever witchcraft and demonology are employed to unravel the mysteries and obviate the difficulties of romance. Under such circumstances, nothing takes place according to the ordinary transaction of human affairs, but all depends on superneation of the characters, and the deep yet simple pathos of the narrative. We should be glad to add that the two latter volumes were rescued from condemnation by the possession of similar merits, but this unfortunately we cannot say; for on the contrary we regard them as unworthy of the high reputation which their author has acquired, and destitute of any virtue that is necessary to ensure admiration and success. Though they sometimes discover a glimpse of that vigorous genius and fervid imagination which have elsewhere afforded such genuine satisfaction, it appears like a ray of light in the midst of darkness; it no sooner glances across the horizon than it is lost in its obscurity, and only renders the surrounding gloom more distinct and visible. Melancholy as this statement is, we must, nevertheless, observe that the commencement of the 'Heart of Mid-Lothian' (for such is the name of the tale) is almost as excellent as its conclusion is "lame and impotent;" and we do not think that this story could be better typified than by comparing it to one of those "monstrous and prodigious things," which Horace has described as decked with all the attributes of feminine proportion above, but as ending below in an obscene and disgusting fish:

> —— "*ubi turpiter atrum*
> *Desinit in piscem, mulier formosa supernè.*"

Before we enter into a farther examination of this work, we shall take the opportunity of making a few remarks on the literary merits of its author; and, in order to exhibit them in clear and striking colours, we shall investigate those peculiarities of *subject*, *style*, and *character*, by which he is exalted so far above the range of ordinary novelists. These latter writers, with a few honourable exceptions, devote themselves to the representation of a passion, which from its frequent recurrence is more easily developed, and from its universal nature is more generally attractive, than any other to which man is liable, — we mean the passion of love; from it they make the whole of their incidents to proceed, and on it the whole interest of their narratives to depend; and they depict every personage, who is a stranger to its influence, as equally a stranger to the action and business of their story, and a reluctant accessary to its final developement. The present author has obtained his reputation by applying the exuberance of his genius to very different objects: on first entering the literary arena, he found all the ordinary subjects of fiction either monopolized or exhausted: but, instead of suffering the powers of his mind to be depressed to despondency

ency by the difficulties which thus seemed to oppose his progress, he considered them as incentives to greater exertions, determined to persevere in seeking for fresh materials, and was successful in his search. He dug down into the mine of human nature, and discovered in it a new and inexhaustible vein of instruction and amusement; he traced the passions to their fountain-head; and then, instead of continuing to confine them in one channel, he demolished the dams which stopped their current, and employed the various streams, into which it immediately branched, to enrich and fertilize the course of his own narrations. Love, which his predecessors deemed the only subject worthy of their consideration, and which was almost beginning to lose the power to please from the want of grandeur and novelty in its portraits, was not indeed entirely banished from his productions: but it was so far removed for the introduction of stronger and nobler emotions, as to form nothing more than an episode to divert the attention, or an interlude to relax the mind, after it had been strung up to the highest pitch of intensity by witnessing the effects of the more grave and agitating feelings. In no instance has he rendered his incidents subservient to its developement, though in several he has rendered its developement subservient to his incidents.

The correctness of this observation will become more evident, if we permit our memories to retrace the leading events in the different novels which we owe to this writer; because it will then be clear that, though in conformity with established usage all of them are brought to a consummation by marriage, the circumstances in each, on which the imagination dwells and the recollection lingers with delight, are not those which describe any attachment existing between the parties, but those which possess a far more thrilling interest than any that such a description could command. In *Waverley*, for instance, the affection, which Rosa Bradwardine unconsciously entertains for him, excites no sympathy, and consequently produces no lasting impression; whereas the falling fortunes of the Pretender, the blasted hopes of Mac Ivor, the heroic firmness and saint-like resignation of his lovely sister, and the more than feudal fidelity of his friends and clansmen, still infuse a melancholy pleasure into our souls, and can never be obliterated from our memories while truth and nature retain the power to charm, and the delineation of grief and rage has the power to agitate. In *Guy Mannering*, the love-adventures of those two sentimental innocents, Julia and Bertram, impart no ideas to the mind which it can recall with pleasure after they have once entered

it,

that the success which his narratives have obtained is principally owing; though we must allow that another cause of it is also to be found in his exquisite and appropriate adaptation of the Scotish language to the personages and purposes of his numerous fictions. We have heard that this insertion of the dialogues of Scotchmen in their own peculiar dialect has been made an engine of attack against him, as if it were improper (as Theocritus has observed) for the natives of Doris to speak Doric; and the introduction of it into the various tales of this writer has been said to subtract materially from the delight which every English reader experiences in perusing them. How it may be with the supporters of this charge, we do not know: but for ourselves, as we do not find the Scotch so stiff as to require much trouble in decyphering, and can perceive all its variations and inflections in the original construction of the English language, we must say that we relish these works much more highly than we otherwise should do, on account of the Scotish phraseology with which they abound. It gives us a more full and complete idea of rustic simplicity and honesty, than any which we could possibly acquire by reading the same sentiments expressed in the most refined and polished English: it detaches us from the localities of present associations; and it enhances the feelings with which we peruse it, by transporting us to other regions, where we are mere sojourners, and in which we find every thing attractive because it is new and strange to our perception. We are even inclined to go farther, and to assert that the Doricism of the language inspires an English bosom with an intensity of sympathy, interest, and curiosity, which no North-Briton himself can ever attain; because the illusion, which we have before stated the dialect to create in our minds, is destroyed in his by the frequency with which he hears it repeated. The sounds, to which we attach ideas of purity and rural virtue, in spite of all the contrary suggestions of reason, will convey to him no other ideas than those which they are intended to communicate; and the representations, which to us seem so inimitable, of the modes and habits of our Caledonian rustics, lose a great part of their effect on him, if incorrect in any the slightest particular. He is enabled by daily experience and observation to detect the delusions which the author has thrown around his subject: whereas we are induced, as much by our own ignorance of any thing to the contrary, as by the great powers of the writer and the extraordinary skill which he displays in the use of them, to believe circumstances to be as he has pourtrayed them; and are inclined, by the general consistency of his narratives, by his faithful and accurate representation of all that has fallen beneath our own notice, and by the ingenious manner in which he has blended fiction with reality and reality with fiction, to accept his delineations as correct, without examining too closely into the grounds on which they may be founded.

These observations on the literary character of "My Landlord" must suffice for the present, as the limits of our review compel us now to return to the work which has elicited them; where the curious preface is the first thing that courts our notice and demands our censure. On commencing this 'Preliminary Postscript,' we started back with surprize, as we thought that we had chanced to take up some book written in a language to which we were strangers. On reconsideration, however, we found that it possibly might be our vernacular tongue, English; yet, if it were, English of such an heterogeneous nature had never before attracted our observation. It reminded us of a beggar's coat; on which so many patches of divers hues, shapes, and qualities had been engrafted, that it became puzzling even to an Œdipus to tell of what colour and what elements it was primarily constituted. So was it with the preface before us: here we met a neoterized Latin jostling with an antiquated English expression, there a classic Hellenism foisted on a Caledonian solecism, and the style of all times, countries, and places so jumbled together, that it was impossible to discover the good Saxon ground-work on which the whole was founded. A pedant *would* not, and a bad scholar *could* not, have indited such a prelusion; and therefore it cannot even be defended as being characteristic of its author, Jedediah Cleishbotham, school-master and parish-clerk of the vill of Gandercleugh.

The lucubration, which next in order claims our attention, is the prologue (if we may borrow an expression from Chaucer) to the tale; and, as the introduction which ushered *Old Mortality* into notice was very generally and justly admired, most of our readers will turn with anxiety to the introduction of the present volumes, in order to obtain for themselves a similar gratification. Here, however, they will be disappointed; because, though the prologue to 'the Heart of Mid-Lothian' is not destitute of attraction, the intrinsic nature of its subject, and the manner in which that subject is treated, impart to it an interest far less powerful than that which attends us during the prelude to *Old Mortality.* That composition derives a charm which all of us can feel, but few of us can adequately express, from the thrill of melancholy which pervades its every sentence; and from the not

unpleasnatural agency; which can as easily render abortive all the measures of skill and the precautions of prudence, as it can give victory and fame to those plans which, according to all moderate calculation, could experience only defeat and ignominy from their inherent absurdity. Of both these faults, the unknown writer now before us has steered wonderfully clear. We are not admitted to view the *denouement* of his stories immediately on commencing them, nor to discern the manner in which every difficulty is to be overcome at the same time that we first observe its appearance, but are carried on to the conclusion through a series of adventures and a chain of incidents, which rise so naturally out of each other that we have no wish to look beyond that which is immediately before us; and which are so well rivetted together, that our attention never flags and our curiosity is never wearied during the perusal of them. We attribute this excellence generally to all his novels, without deeming it necessary to enter into any minute or particular proofs of it; and at the same time we remark that he never either creates mystery for mere mystery's sake, or involves his heroes in any difficulties from which he cannot extricate them by human skill and human exertions. Thus, while he avoids the *too great certainty* by the admirable arrangement of his story, he also escapes the other fault of excessive *unexpectedness* by the just conception of what is suitable to his characters; and the union of these two qualifications, which, even separately, are sufficient to prevent any writer from transgressing the probabilities that ought always to exist in fictitious adventures, not only preserves inviolate the magic influence on which their illusion depends, but increases it to an extraordinary extent.

This is high encomium, because the excellence which elicits it is rare: yet it yields in dignity to another topic of praise, to which we shall immediately challenge attention. — It is without doubt an arduous task to give a correct delineation of men and manners, as they *now* exist: but it is much more arduous to draw a true portrait of society as it was, and as it has just ceased to be, — to arrest the shades of habits, prejudices, and opinions, which are fast evanescing from public view, — and to give substance and solidity to that which is in itself so volatile, as almost to defy the grasp of thought. The difficulty in the former case is diminished by the author having the object, of which he is to form a copy, perpetually before his eye on all occasions, and by having to write on subjects which have an interest of their own, independent of any that is created by skill or management; while, in the latter case, the difficulty is increased, because the whole of the interest is to be generated by himself, and because he is writing on customs and subjects which have ceased to be entertaining. Besides, should he in any instance doubt the correctness of his resemblance, he cannot trust to experience, but must reason from analogy: he cannot refer to the great living book of human nature, but must have recourse to books of ethics, or books of history; he can only judge of what no longer exists by the most delusive of all tests, that which exists at the present moment. We have not heard of any author who has been so successful in this Herculean labour, as the writer whose merits we are now discussing. He convinces us by the representation of scenes and characters which have long been withdrawn from the gaze of the world, that he is not less acquainted with the passions and prejudices of mankind as they now subsist, than he is with them as they subsisted a century ago. He exhibits himself as the intimate acquaintance at one and the same time of the dead and the living; and the characters, whom he calls from the grave to figure in his pages, start forth into new life, perfect in all the mien, form, and lineaments of human beings, and warm with all the blood and freshness of animated existence. He thus stamps the impress of originality and of genius on his productions, and raises himself from the general mass of novelists to sit on the same bench with the annalists of his country.

In this enumeration of his merits, we cannot forget the strong nationality of all his publications, which forms the distinguishing feature of his style and characters. All his novels are Scotch, even to the back-bone; and the vices and virtues of his countrymen are coloured in them with such warmth of feeling and such glow of imagination, as could arise only from an entire conviction of their existence, acquired by a long abode in their habitations and by a frequent and varied intercourse with every class of society among them. His portrait of the higher orders is the production of a master's hand, and displays a very correct resemblance of their general customs, habits, and opinions; yet it is inferior to the picture which he has sketched of the honest and humble and industrious peasantry of his native land: a picture which, though invariably favourable to their moral and civil excellence, bears about it no marks of exaggeration, and evinces no blindness to their faults and imperfections. It is to this charm of nationality, and to the more than dramatic representations of the thoughts, words, manners, and actions of his countrymen, which always attend his exemplification of it, that unpleasing allusions, with which it abounds, to the delight which the dead may be supposed to receive from the affectionate attention of their surviving friends. As no theme is better calculated to awaken our sympathy than this, which is so nearly allied to our best affections, on no theme is a writer of such powerful genius, as this author possesses, so likely to be eminently successful: for it has a character of such touching force and such aweful solemnity, that "thoughts which breathe and words which burn" spring up spontaneously before it; and every consideration on other subjects, which may be afterward forced on the mind, appears frivolous and contemptible when held in comparison with it. We must not therefore be surprized if the introduction to the present volumes, which is of a playful kind, and which deals more in sarcastic reflections on the living than serious meditations on the dead, should be less of a favourite than its gloomy predecessor. With all its inferiority, however, it is far from being a common production; and, though filled with as many bad jests and puns as any of the new farces by which the town has been lately inundated, it will bear a second reading better than they will stand a second representation. As its spirit might probably evaporate in analysis, we shall leave it without any farther comment, and proceed to the tale itself, of which we place the following very concise abstract in presence of our readers.

Our old playwrights had a good custom of prefixing to their dramas a brief account of the part which each character sustained in them; and we shall adopt it at present, as the readiest method of introducing to the public the principal personages in this story. Among them are to be enumerated Davie Deans, a "tough, true blue Presbyterian,"—Jeanie and Effie, his two daughters,—Reuben Butler, an honest, half-starved, dominie of the kirk of Scotland, in love with and beloved by the former of these young ladies, — and George Robertson, a wild thoughtless profligate, in love with and beloved by the latter. When, where, and how, these several amours commenced, we have not room to recount; nor would the when, the where, and the how, be worth recounting, even if we had. Suffice it to say that, as Miss Jeanie Deans is the *ne plus ultra* of female excellence, her love-adventures are conducted from their commencement to their close with as much decorum as any antiquated virgin can possibly desire: but that those of her sister, who is not made of the same "porcelain clay of human nature," and who therefore has not her affections under quite so discreet a rule and government, are filled with as many portentous dangers and narrow escapes, as the most determined novel-reader can either rationally or irrationally demand. Contrary to the general rule established in these cases, the virtue of Miss Effie, though the heroine of the tale, falls a victim to the solicitations of her lover; and it is from the futile attempts made to hide her lapse from chastity by the concealment of her pregnancy, that all the woes and miseries, which afterward surround her, originally proceed. Robertson, her seducer, consigns her during her confinement to the care of a woman in form, but demon in nature, called Meg Murdockson; who delivers Effie of a male infant, which during the insensibility occasioned by the pangs of labour she contrives to secrete, or, as she rather insinuates to the distressed mother, actually to murder. This tragical intelligence frightens poor Effie so much, that, in a state more nearly resembling death than life, she escapes from Murdockson, flies to her own home, and discloses her sad and miserable condition to her astonished and compassionating sister. She has not been at home many days before the officers of justice, who had by some means heard of her *accouchement*, come to apprehend her on the alleged crime of child-murder. The law at that time in Scotland was, (and for any thing that we know it still may be,) that every unmarried woman who shall give birth to a child, without previously informing some individual of her pregnancy, shall be considered as guilty of child-murder if she does not produce the infant of which she has been delivered. Unfortunately, our poor erring damsel had not made any person the confidant of her situation; and, as she cannot, for the reasons before mentioned, produce her wretched offspring, she falls under the lash of this very severe ordinance. She is in consequence tried and condemned to death, and is only rescued from the sentence passed on her by the great exertions of her elder sister; who volunteers a journey on foot to London, there gains, through the interest of the great Duke of Argyle, a personal interview with Majesty, and by her tears and plaintive eloquence wins a pardon for the suffering and distracted Effie.

All this is told in a very striking and affecting manner; and, if it were not most strangely connected with the Porteous-riots, (at Edinburgh, 1736.) which, though described in a very vivid style, have little to do with the main business of the story, its effect would be still more electric than it is at present. That effect, however, receives farther diminution from the prolix detail by which it is succeeded: we are not now alluding to the long and tedious recital of the Rev. Mr. and Mrs. Butler's wedded happiness, so much as to the "moonlight flitting" which the

pardoned

pardoned culprit makes from her father's house, even before she has poured out her soul in gratitude to the excellent being who had delivered her from a premature and disgraceful death. We maintain that this step shews not merely a want of natural affection in Effie Deans, which we have no reason for expecting, but also a most pointed inconsistency of character, of which the author in the haste in which he has concocted a part of these volumes may probably not have been aware. If Effie could before her trial muster virtuous resolution sufficient to remain in a prison, whence she could have effected her escape, when she knew that nothing less than death awaited her by remaining in it, — and if she could defend her resolution on the principle that life, deprived of honour, was not worth preserving, — on what motive can she be supposed to have acted in voluntarily flying with Robertson from a comfortable home, within three days of the time at which she was so unexpectedly restored to it? We see none; and therefore, independently of the breach of morality of which some readers have accused the author in allowing this procedure, we must beg leave to denounce it as inconsistent with the whole tenor of the previous narrative. The guilt, which Effie had to incur in eloping with her seducer, was the same in both cases; while the inducement to take such a measure was so strong in one instance that it would have almost excused it, and in the other was so much weakened that it scarcely formed any temptation.

Other remarks on this novel must naturally press on the consideration of every person who reads it; such as the impropriety of transforming Effie Deans into Lady Staunton, and delineating her as a favourite with the Duke of Argyle, to whose intercession she had been indebted for life; and also the extraordinary conclusion to which it is brought by the murder of George Robertson, (who has undergone a curious metamorphosis into a Sir George Staunton [*],) by the offspring of his own criminal intrigue with Effie.

It would, perhaps, be improper to conclude our comments on this work without giving some extract from it; and we have therefore selected a short passage, which exhibits to great advantage the extraordinary powers and acquirements of the author. In it we shall attend Miss Jeanie Deans in a midnight-walk, which she takes to meet not an expecting lover but an unknown individual; who conjures her, as she wishes to save a human being from the most damning guilt, her sister's life from the fangs of a most unjust law, and her own peace of mind here and happiness hereafter from total wreck, to give him a secure, secret, and solitary meeting. We omit any description of the difficulties which she found in leaving her father's house unobserved at the time appointed for the interview, because they are not such as will interest the reader; and we shall merely state that the chief obstacles, which she had to encounter, arose from the terrors that she had occasion to apprehend. The hour of appointment, deep midnight, was aweful and solemn, — the place, Muschat's cairn, the theatre of murder and violence, — the person to be met, from his very conduct daring and adventurous, — and she herself alone and unprotected. Add to this that the religious tenets, in which she had been educated, inculcated a belief in ghosts, demonology, and witchcraft; and that she felt in consequence an ill-defined apprehension not merely of the phantoms which might beset her way, but of the quality, nature, and purpose of the being who had thus appointed her a meeting at a place and hour of danger, and whom she verily expected to be the Evil One himself. Yet, as in spite of these complicated horrors, she persevered in her determination of going to this mysterious conference, we deem it our duty to inform the reader of them, that he may properly appreciate the heroism of her conduct, and may thoroughly understand the full force of the scene which we now submit to his attentive perusal. (Vol. ii. p. 60.)

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[*] *En passant*, we must object to this use of an existing name and title.

'When she was within two yards of the heap of stones, a figure rose suddenly up from behind it, and Jeanie scarce forbore to scream aloud at what seemed the realization of the most frightful of her anticipations. She constrained herself to silence, however, and, making a dead pause, suffered the figure to open the conversation, which he did, by asking, in a voice which agitation rendered tremulous and hollow, "Are you the sister of that ill-fated young woman?"

'"I am — I am the sister of Effie Deans!" exclaimed Jeanie; — "and, as ever you hope God will hear you at your need, tell me, if you can tell, what can be done to save her?"

'"I do NOT hope God will hear me at my need," was the singular answer. "I do not deserve — I do not expect he will." This desperate language he uttered in a tone calmer than that with which he had at first spoken, probably because the shock of first addressing her was what he felt most difficult to overcome. Jeanie remained mute with horror to hear language expressed so utterly foreign to all which she had ever been acquainted with, that it sounded in her ears rather like that of a fiend than of a human being. The stranger pursued his address to her without seeming to notice her surprize. "You see before you a wretch predestined to evil here and hereafter."

'"For the sake of heaven, that hears and sees us," said Jeanie, "dinna speak in this desperate fashion. The Gospel is sent to the chief of sinners — to the most miserable among the miserable."

'"Then should I have my own share therein," said the stranger; "if you call it sinful to have been the destruction of the mother that bore me — of the friend that loved me — of the woman that trusted me — of the innocent child that was born to me. If to have done all this is to be a sinner, and to survive it is to be miserable, then am I most guilty and most miserable indeed."

'"Then you are the wicked cause of my sister's ruin?" said Jeanie, with a natural touch of indignation expressed in her tone of voice.

'"Curse me for it if you will," said the stranger. "I have well deserved it at your hand."

'"It is fitter for me," said Jeanie, "to pray to God to forgive you."

'"Do as you will, how you will, or what you will," he replied with vehemence; "only promise to obey my directions, and save your sister's life."

'"I must first know," said Jeanie, "the means you would have me use in her behalf."

'"No — you must first swear, solemnly swear, that you will employ them when I make them known to you."

'"Surely, it is needless to swear that I will do all that is lawful to a Christian, to save the life of my sister."

'"I will have no reservation!" thundered the stranger; "lawful or unlawful, Christian or Heathen, you shall swear to do my hest and act by my counsel, or — you little know whose wrath you provoke!"

'"I will think on what you have said," said Jeanie, who began to get much alarmed at the frantic vehemence of his manner, and disputed in her own mind, whether she spoke to a maniac, or an apostate spirit incarnate; — "I will think on what you say, and let you ken to-morrow."

'"To-morrow?" exclaimed the man, with a laugh of scorn — "and where will I be to-morrow? — or where will you be to-night, unless you swear to walk by my counsel? — There was one accursed deed done at this spot before now; and there shall be another to match it, unless you yield up to my guidance body and soul."'

The length, to which this article has been protracted, must be our excuse for cutting short a conversation, so characteristic of calm determination in one party and of sudden passion in the other. The execution of what follows it is in no degree inferior; and, as our dramatic poets are now so little gifted with original genius as to be obliged to take all their incidents and most of their dialogue from the works of our novel-writers, we recommend it to their serious notice, as well calculated to secure the applause of our theatres. For ourselves, we must now quit the present publication: but, before we do this, we cannot help thanking its author for the amusement which he has again afforded us; though we must at the same time use the privilege of friends, and inform him that it is much inferior to the gratification which we have derived from his former compositions.

As a piece of literary gossip, we add the report that 4000l. were given for the copyright of these volumes! What a luxury it is to be a fashionable writer! — As a farther piece of literary news, we have to notice that another series of these Tales is announced in the public papers very speedily to appear.

ART. III. *The Byrth, Lyf, and Actes of King Arthur;* of his Noble Knyghtes of the Rounde Table, theyr merveyllous Enquestes and Adventures, thachyevyng of the Sanc Greal; and in the End *Le Morte d'Arthur,* with the dolorous Deth and Departyng out of thys Worlde of them al. With an Introduction and Notes, by Robert Southey, Esq. 2 Vols. 4to. About 1000 pages. 8l. 8s. Boards. Printed from Caxton's Edition, 1485, for Longman and Co. 1817.

"THE age of chivalry is past;" and the names of the fabulous Charlemagne and Arthur, which formerly classed with those of David and Solomon, Ahasuerus and Esther, and are still to be seen in common with them engraven on the faces of divers playing cards of the 14th and the 15th century, now no longer serve

> "To point a moral, or adorn a tale."

The present age is not, however, so refined as to have banished all laudable curiosity respecting the manners and habits, characters and opinions, of our remote ancestors; and, at least from the earliest time of the diffusion of learning among us, it is obviously impossible to point out any more prolific source of this kind of knowlege, than that which is derived from an insight into their literary pursuits and amusements. Of the latter class, books of chivalry afforded, during a long and illustrious period of our annals, almost the only relief after severe fatigue, or substitute during sickness, for the fiercer pleasures of the chace or the tournament; and it is in this view that we propose, after having shortly examined the prefatory contents of the volumes before us, to pass to a critical analysis of the once celebrated but now neglected and almost forgotten tale, which, dressed out in all the pomp and beauty of modern typography, may look back on its former rude state, as it stepped forth from the press of antient Caxton, with a feeling not unlike that of Miss Edgeworth's old countrywoman, though produced by a cause directly opposite; —

"Och!" (quoth the little woman,) "this is none of I."

Mr. Southey opens his case with observing that, 'rich as the English is in every other branch of literature, it is peculiarly deficient in prose romances of chivalry,' and adds that the cause of this deficiency may perhaps be found in our history. While chivalry was in its zenith, our language had not yet found its way among the higher classes; and when at last it acquired an establishment with the government of the Tudors, the lustre of chivalry had already expired. At the same time, metrical romances and ballads became very popular among the vulgar, because they could be remembered and recited by those who were unable to read; and that reading was then considered as an accomplishment even in the high-bred and courtly, who had not yet attained to the discovery made by Dogberry of its *coming by nature*, is proved by various passages in the French books of chivalry. In the romance of *Perceval*, when Gawain wins the *espee aux estranges unges* which had formerly belonged to Judas Maccabæus and Joseph of Arimathea, and finds an inscription on it, we are informed that he *read* the inscription: — *Gauvain, qui bien sçavoit lire, tendit la main*, &c.; and it should have been added that he was an excellent and acute antiquary. In the same romance, we are told that the hero himself (who was not equally well-bred, as we shall find in the course of this history,) *ne sçavoit pas lire*, but supplied the deficiency on this occasion by the assistance of oral tradition, — *mais bien en avoit ouy parler.*

To this circumstance of the unfashionableness of the English language, the romance of the *Morte d'Arthur* is owing. 'Had the volumes, from which it is compiled,' (observes the editor,) 'existed in English, Sir Thomas Malory would not have thought of extracting parts from them and blending them into one work:' for such is the formation of this celebrated compilation from the romances of the Round Table. Without following Mr. Southey in his observations on the Origin of Romance in general, or of that class of romances which is the subject of immediate inquiry, or in his comparative estimate of the antiquity and peculiar merits of the tale of Arthur as contrasted with that of Charlemagne, we now pass to his notices of some of the principal of those

which,

which, with reference to the *Morte d'Arthur*, may be called original fictions.

The first in order is the romance of *Merlin:*

> 'It begins with a bold fiction bordering on impiety, though assuredly not invented with any irreligious intention. The author pretends that the devils held a council in consequence of the diminution which their power on earth had sustained since the Incarnation: the result of their deliberations was, a resolution that the best way to oppose the power of God in the world would be to produce an incarnation of the Devil. A fiend accordingly volunteered for this service: but by a strange mistake, for one of his subtlety, he chose a religious damsel for the subject of his experiment; and she by her prayers and penitence sanctified the child of which she had innocently and unwittingly conceived. As soon as young Merlin had saved his mother from the punishment to which she was condemned, he desired her confessor, the holy man Blaise, to write down his history, and whatever else he should tell him; upon which Blaise adjured him in the most solemn manner not to deceive him, or make him do any thing but what would please God. Merlin satisfies him upon this score, and tells him that all people will gladly hear his book, but that it will not be of authority, inasmuch as he is not one of the Apostles. Blaise is thus made historiographer to the great poet and enchanter; who with becoming regard to the information of posterity supplies him from time to time with the most unquestionable materials. As soon as any thing remarkable has happened, away posts Merlin to Northumberland, and communicates it to his veracious chronicler.'

Notwithstanding this bold commencement, the book of Merlin is, in Mr. S.'s opinion, 'one of the poorest books of the Round Table.' The first books of the *Morte d'Arthur*, however, draw largely from it. That the extraordinary circumstances attending the birth of Merlin are not without a parallel in grave history is shewn by a very curious passage from Procopius; who says that he was persuaded, as were many of his friends, that Justinian and Theodora were no better than "two malignant dæmons, who, after having held counsel together upon the means of ruining the world, had not found any more proper than that of assuming a human form;" to which sage remark are subjoined several anecdotes of their diabolical agency, not less marvellous than that which is recorded in the romance in question; — and as we learn also from the life of Saint Kentigern, in the *Acta Sanctorum*, where it is represented that the above saint was born, if not of a miraculous conception, yet in such a manner that neither his mother nor any other human person could form any conjecture how he was produced. "Merlin," says the romance, "was a gentleman on his mother's side;

but of his father, I shall say nothing, for you have already heard who begot him."

The end of this famous magician was not less memorable than his beginning: — but the history of his amour with the crafty Lady Viviane, who prevailed on him to communicate to her so much of his art as to recoil on himself, so that "*il en fut depuis et est encore tenu pour fol,*" would detain us too long from the principal narrative which we have to pursue. We are referred to the testimony of a lady whose ingenuity has often amused and instructed us, and whose name we take this opportunity of mentioning with unfeigned regret, — the late Mrs. Anne Plumptre, — for the curious fact that the account of the fate of Merlin contained in this romance is still current as a popular tradition among the Bretons. — 'Some of their traditions say that he is still alive, enclosed in a tree by the power of a greater enchanter than himself. The exact spot no one knows for certain: though it is somewhere near his birth-place, which they affirm was in the isle of Sein, a little islet off the western coast of Britany, between the points of Raz and Croissant.'

"The Prophecies of Merlin" are usually in request to accompany the Romance. "*Les Prophecies de Merlin. On les vent à Regues chiez Jehan Mace — à Caen chiez Michel Augier, à Rouen chiez Richard Mace, aux cinq chapelets pres la grant eglise.*" — "*Cy finent les Prophecies de Merlin,* &c.;" — a book put together (Mr. S. observes) in extraordinary confusion, not bearing the slightest resemblance to the predictions recorded by Jeffery of Monmouth, but much more amusing, and more curious. 'The latest book on the subject,' as he states in the notes, 'is that by Thomas Heywood, a man whose dramatic pieces contain passages of exquisite beauty, and whose other works, voluminous as they are, are nearly worthless.' We are somewhat surprised at the sweeping condemnation passed in this sentence on the labours of the author of "The Hierarchy of the Blessed Angels;" a work of occult science, on the merits of which we the less unwillingly forbear to descant at present, as they have been recently exposed to notice in a periodical publication, the contents of which we (at least, faintly,) conjecture to pass not unfrequently in review before the Laureate antecedently to their appearance in the world. — The book now in question is intitled, "The Life of Merlin, surnamed Ambrosius. His Prophecies and Predictions interpreted; and their Truth made good by our English Annals. Being a Chorographicall History of all the Kings, and memorable Passages of this Kingdome, from Brute to the Reign of our Royall Sovereign King

Charles, &c." — a serious and dull attempt to trace the fulfilment of Merlin's prophecies in the course of English history, adds Mr. Southey; and, with the book before us, we feel so little disposed to dispute the justness of this censure, that we shall not trouble our readers with a quotation, agreeing that the passage selected for that purpose by Mr. S. is probably the most amusing in the work, — and that is the creation of his own fancy. The adaptation, however, of the prophecies in question to events, either passed or passing, was not an invention of Heywood. We have just opened on the following passage in Matthew Paris, who wrote before 1260; and we doubt not that many others may be found in contemporary or perhaps in older historians, to a similar effect. Speaking of the release from confinement of Eleanor, the too famous Queen of Henry II., on the accession of her son Richard, the historian adds; "And thus was brought to light that prophecy of Merlin, wherein it is said, *Aquila rupti fœderis tertiâ nidificatione gaudebit.* — Aquila meaning the Queen, because she spreads her wings over two realms, France and England; also by reason of her rapacity, in that she ravished both souls and bodies with her exceeding beauty. She was separated from the King of France (her first husband) for consanguinity, and from the King of England by divorce, upon suspicion, and confined in close imprisonment. Thus was she in both kingdoms, '*Aquila rupti fœderis.*' And that which the prophet added, viz '*tertiâ nidificatione gaudebit,*' may be understood thus: — Her eldest son William died a boy; her second, Henry, after being raised to kingly estate, took arms against his father, and paid the debt of nature soon afterward. Richard (her third son), denoted by the words '*tertiâ nidificatione,*' was truly the joy of his mother, and (as it has been said) honoured her as his mother with all reverence after he had liberated her from the miseries of a prison." — Two other instances of the completion of Merlin's prophecies occur in the same author; the last of which he has not contented himself with referring to a single event, but has with double ingenuity discovered two, to either or both of which it may with equal propriety be assigned. The prophecy is in these words: "*Dabitur maxillis ejus pœnum, quod in Armorico sinu fabricabitur.*" The first occurrence, by which this dark saying is asserted to have been accomplished, is the capture of the King of Scots in 1174, and his being sent to the castle of Richemont in Britany (*Armorica*) for safe custody: the next, the humiliation of his rival Henry II. by the successful (though unnatural) hostility of his son Richard, aided by the arms of Philip Augustus, which is said to have broken the heart of the aged monarch. The mode in which the latter parallelism is brought about and explained would be too tedious in the exposition: but it is rather a curious instance of the facility with which a tolerable imagination may fit the same illustration to many, and even opposite, purposes.

The next in order of the sources from which the *Morte d'Arthur* derives its origin is the following: — "*Le Roman du vaillant Lancelot du Lac, Chevalier de la Table Ronde, translaté du Latin en Françoise, par Robert de Borron, ou de Bourron. Paris, Verard,* 1494." 3 vols. in fol.; — the bulkiest, says Mr. S., of all the Round Table romances: but also one of the best; the hero of which 'might be considered as the ideal of a perfect knight for honour, generosity, and constancy, as well as courage, if it could be forgotten that he lives in adultery with the wife of the King whom he serves, and who regards him as one of the best and most faithful of his court.' How far the circumstance of conduct last mentioned can, consistently with the manners and morals of the age, be considered as detracting from the full praise of chivalrous virtues, which (it is admitted) would be otherwise due to this pattern of knighthood, we entertain some doubt, and beg leave to refer to the Fabliaux and works of the Trouveurs, &c. both of Provence and Normandy, *passim.* The love of Queen Guerever seems to be as essential to the completion of his character of a *preux chevalier*, as the favours of every handsome married woman in the court of Louis XV. to that of the *parfait gentilhomme* of Paris during the eighteenth century; and the apparent treason and ingratitude of the offence would, we apprehend, according to the same criterion, only tend to enhance the merit of its commission.

Then follows "*Histoire du tres-vaillant, noble, et excellent Chevalier, Tristan, fils du Roi Méliadus de Léonnois* (*rédigée par Luce, Chevalier, Seigneur du Château de Gast.*) *Imprimé à Paris pour Anthoine Verard.* 2 *toms en* 1. (*sans date*):" — for the history of which we are referred by Mr. Southey to Walter Scott's edition of the poem of Thomas of Ercildoune; a publication in the hands of too many of our readers to require that we should say any thing more on the subject. We cannot, however, omit to transcribe Mr. Southey's opinion of the merits of this celebrated Romance of *Tristan de Léonnois,* since the judgment of no writer of the present day on such a point is intitled to so great a degree of deference:

'I began the perusal of this, as being the most celebrated of all these romances, with great expectations: those expectations

were

were not answered: the story in its progress not only disappointed, but frequently disgusted me. Vile as the thought is of producing by a philtre that love upon which the whole history turns, and making the hero, or rather both the heroes, live in adultery (and that too in both instances of an aggravated kind), these are the conditions of the romance, which must be taken with it for better for worse: they are the original elements, of which the author was to make the best he could. But it is the fault of the author that so many of the leading incidents should shock, not merely our ordinary morals, which are conventional and belong to our age, but those feelings which belong to human nature in all ages. The characters also are in many instances discordant with themselves: and the fault, so frequent in such books, of degrading one hero to enhance the fame of another, is carried here to great excess. An author may do what he will with the creatures of his own creation, — they are as clay in the potter's hand, — but it is a foul offence in literature to take up the personage whom another writer has described as a knight of prowess, and of worth, and engraft vices upon him, and stain him with dishonour. Who could bear to see Desdemona represented as an adulteress?' (Pp. xv, xvi.)

The romance of *Meliadus*, the father of *Tristram*, (*Le Roman de Meliadus de Léonnois, Chevalier de la Table Ronde; où sont contenues, avec les faites d'armes, plusieurs proësses de Chevalerie faites par le bon Roy Artus, Palamedes, et autres Chevaliers, estant au tems du dit Roy Meliadus: translaté du Latin, par Rusticien de Pise, et remis depuis en nouveau Langage. Paris, Denys Janot,* 1532. fol.) is, according to Mr. Southey, very superior to that of the son.

'The author of the *Brut* professes to have composed or recompiled this volume, at the request of King Henry of England, from the Latin, in which it had been rudely and confusedly written by Master Rusticien de Pise, at the desire of an English king Edward. I do not believe that any of these romances ever existed in Latin. By whom, or for whom, could they have been written in that language? Nor would it be worth while to guess what kings are intended, when the patrons may be as imaginary as the originals. Unlike all the other romances which have been noticed, I suppose Meliadus to have been the work of a single author; — and he sets out like a true knight-errant who is in search of adventures, without knowing what course he shall take, or when his journey is to end. His intention was to write a book about Palamedes, — the best conceived character in Tristram, — and in the name of Palamedes the author says he begins it; so he brings Esclabor, the father of this knight, from Babylon to Rome, and from Rome to Northumberland, and having thus got to King Arthur, nothing more is said about the intended hero. A few desultory adventures of King Pharamond, and the Morhoult of Julard, *bring* Meliadus upon the stage, and his rival the *bon chevalier* *sans paour. Sans paour* he was, but not *sans reproche,* having at a tournament either done something which he ought not to have done, or left undone something that he ought to have done,—I do not recollect which,—for many years have elapsed since I read the book, and the circumstance is not among my notes: but it is manifestly in reference to this character and this circumstance that the Chevalier Bayard obtained his well-known appellation. Meliadus and the *bon chevalier sans paour* are the two heroes of the romance, nor is it possible to discover which of them the author himself prefers, for he does them equal justice. Many tales of their heroism and of their rivalry are related, just in the manner of the episodes in *Gyron,* so much so indeed as decidedly to identify the author of the two books, were there no other proof. The manner in which each speaks of his rival is always very fine, and in the noblest spirit of chivalry. The business of the first half of the book ends in a tournament, where they take different sides, and where, on the whole, the *bon chevalier* is the more fortunate. A more connected story follows. Meliadus falls in love with the Queen of Scotland, and forcibly carries her off out of Arthur's dominions: for which he is attacked in his own kingdom, and by the prowess of the *bon chevalier sans paour* conquered and taken. Arthur imprisons him; but his confinement is more rigorous than the King either intends or knows. Meantime Arthur falls sick: his vassals (like Alexander's captains) go to war with each other, and Ariohan, a terrible Saxon, at the instigation of some of them, invades Logres. Arthur recovers, and summons all his liege-men, but the *bon chevalier sans paour* refuses to come, saying that the king has disgraced and wronged all chivalry by the manner in which he treats the best knight living. Meliadus is then delivered in consequence of this generous conduct on the part of his rival: he accepts a defiance from Ariohan, and concludes the war by defeating him. The remainder of the volume is filled up incoherently with any stories about the round table knights which came into the head of the author, or into the hands of the compiler. Galahad le brun, Segarades, Gyron, Tristram, &c. are introduced without the slightest connection of time, place, or any thing else, and the whole ends with the death of Meliadus, in the words wherewith it is related in Tristram.' (Pp. xvi—xviii.)

Mr. Southey may deservedly be ranked with those most entertaining writers Tressan and Ellis, in the art of briefly telling a long story. We believe that he could make, even out of Cassandra and the Grand Cyrus, books not merely readable, but very amusing; and we feel almost tempted to express a wish that he would leave politics, polemics, and poetics also, to addict himself wholly to labours of this light and agreeable description. We can only offer, by way of encouragement, the assurance that we should most gladly follow him through all of them: though we know not whether it may not be made a species of treason by implication even to hint a thing so derogatory of a poet-laureate.

The extent of the preceding quotation, however, compels us to be more sparing in our summary of what follows. The next romance in the list is that of *Giron* the courteous: "*Le Roman de Gyron le Courtois; translaté de Branor le brun, le viel chevalier qui avoit plus de cent ans d'age, lequel vint à la cour du Roy Artus, accompagné d'une damoiselle, pour s'éprouver à l'encontre des jeunes Chevaliers, lesquels etoient les plus vaillans, ou les jeunes, ou les vieux; et comment il abbatit le Roy Artus, et quatorze roys qui en sa compagnie étoient, et pareillement tous les Chevaliers de la Table Ronde, de coups de lance: et traite le dit livre des plus grands aventures qui jadis advinrent aux Chevaliers errants; avec la devise et les armes de tous les Chevaliers de la Table Ronde. Paris, Verard.* (*Sans date.*)"

'This,' says Mr. S., 'is the work of the same author (as the preceding), whose style is indeed distinctly marked, especially in dialogue, and who, in his tone of morals, is infinitely superior to all the other romancers of this school;' and he gives some extracts of great merit in justification of the assertion. An historical reason may be alleged for respecting this romance, at least equally cogent with any that the Curate and the Barber found for saving the few which were deemed worth preserving in the collection of the worthy gentleman of La Mancha: viz. 'Francis the first of France preferred it to all other books of chivalry.' He commanded Alamanni to translate it into Italian: 'but Alamanni added little to his reputation' by obeying the injunction. M. Ginguené appears to have formed a more favourable estimate: for, having stated, as a general character of the writer, that Alamanni is one of those poets whose works are most honourable to Italy, and who confer the greatest credit on France for having given them an asylum, he favours us with a somewhat extended analysis of the poem in question, and sums up his account of it in these words:

> "*Le héros se montre, d'un bout à l'autre, digne de son surnom par ses actions et par ses discours. Il tient, en quelque sorte, à tous venants, école de courtoisie; il en fait un cours complet. La générosité la plus noble respire dans tout ce qu'il dit: de sa bouche sortent, à tout moment, et à tout propos, des maximes élévées qui feraient bien repetter la chevalerie errante, si chacun n'était pas libre de les professer dans son coeur et d'y conformer sa vie, sans avoir le casque en tête et la lance au poing, mais qui, par leurs retours continuels, et quelquefois par leur longueur, ont un effet que produisent souvent les choses mêmes qu'on admire. En un mot,*

Giron le Courtois est un poëme fort noble, fort raisonnable, et généralement bien écrit, mais froid, et par conséquent un peu ennuyeux; peut-être par cela même que l'auteur y a mis trop d'ordre et de raison; peut-être pourait on dire des poëmes romanesques, ce que Terence dit de l'amour.

"*Incerta hæc situ postules,*
Ratione certâ facere, nihilo plus agas,
Quam si des operam, ut cum ratione insanias."
Hist. Litt. d'Italie, tom. v. *p.*40, 41.

We are not acquainted either with the *Girone il Cortes* or with the original French romance, and therefore cannot pretend to ascertain how much of the above praise belongs to the Italian poet in his own person: but we must not omit to mention, after Mr. Southey, other yet more powerful claims of this romance on the attention of the English reader; —that it is supposed to contain the original of Spenser's Braggadochio, in a certain hero named Hennor de la Selve.

"*L'histoire du Sainct Greaal, qui est le premier livre de la Table Ronde; lequel traicte de plusieurs matieres recreatives. Ensemble la queste du dict Sainct Greaal, faicte par Lancelot, Galaud, Boors, et Perceval, qui est le dernier livre de la Table Ronde; lesquels livres ne furent jamais imprimez jusques à présent.*"

We shall not here descant on the happiness of Mr. Laing, (himself a member of the celebrated Roxburghe club,) in possessing a work which Mr. Heber's "known kindness" and liberality did not furnish him with the means of sending to the poet-laureate: but we must present our readers, on the authority of the last-named gentleman, with some curious particulars respecting the book itself: which, we must bear in mind, was imprinted "*Le* xxv *jour de Septembre, mil cinq cens et seize.*"

'This remarkable book is said to have been translated by command of the Holy Church, from Latin into French, by a person whose name is sometimes written Sire Robert de Berron, sometimes de Borron, and whose Christian name is as little determined, being in some places Robert, and in others Pierre. The name perhaps is as fictitious as the command of the church; bold, however, as the latter falsehood may appear, the author has advanced a more extraordinary assertion, which I know not whether to qualify as fiction or as intended imposture. He affirms that what he is relating ought to be received as truth; *car celluy,* he proceeds, *seroit plain de trop folle hardiesse qui oseroit monstre mensonge en si haute chose comme est cette saincte hystoire* que le vrai crucifix fist et escripvit de sa propre main, *et pour ce doit il etre tenu en plus grant honneur.* He then proceeds to say, that according to the Scriptures, our Saviour wrote only twice during his mortal life—once when he composed the Lord's Prayer, and once when the woman was t ltery; *ja ne trouvons si* *hardy clerc qui dye que Dieu fist oncques escripture puis la resurrection, ne mais le saincte escripture du Sainct Greaal seulement, et qui vouldroit dire que puis il eust fait autre escripture de auctorite il seroit tenu a menteur: et sy dy bien qu'il seroit de trop folle hardiesse qui mensonge vouldroit mettre en si haute chose comme est* ceste hystoire que le filz de Dieu escripvit luy mesmes de sa propre main, puis que il eust mys la mortelle vie hors, et revesta la magesté celestielle.' (P. xxiii.)

'Whether this blasphemous fiction,' adds the Laureate, 'be the unpardonable licence of a romancer's fancy, or the pious fraud of some zealous believer in transubtantiation, I presume not to determine: in the dark ages there were no bounds either to such fancies or such frauds. Legends not less impudent have obtained belief in the Romish church; and if the light of knowledge, which at one time trembled in its socket, had been put out, the Sainct Greaal, with whatever intent it was written, might possibly have become one of the sacred books of the West, as the Mahabbarat and the Ramayuna are received for Holy Scripture in India.'

One, and only one, more source is particularized by Mr. Southey, in his catalogue of authorities, and it is thus intitled: "*Tresplaisante et recreative hystoire du trespreux et vaillant Chevalier Perceval le galloys, jadis chevalier de la Table Ronde. Lequel acheva les adventures du Sainct Greaal. Avec aulchuns faicts belliqueux du noble chevalier Gauvain et aultres chevaliers estans au temps du noble Roy Arthuz. Non auparavant imprime.*" The book from which Mr. Southey has extracted the foregoing title-page is also in Mr. Laing's collection; and from the prologue it should appear that the work itself was a compilation made at the request of Philip Count of Flanders, and continued, after his death, under the auspices of Jehanne his Countess.

Mr. S. tells us that there are other romances from which the materials for the *Morte d'Arthur* were drawn, but those above mentioned are the principal; three of the number, viz. Lancelot, Tristan, and the Sainct Greaal, having furnished two-thirds of the whole compilation. Here again, however, we meet with an historical fact, which would arrest our purpose even if we had intended to write a satire against the follies of the age which has passed, and would turn our eyes back to the vanity and frivolity of that on which we are thrown. Speaking of a romance, now lost, which related the noble deeds of the *hault Prince Galahad*, we are informed that it was the favourite work of Nuno Alvarez Pereira; who, 'endeavouring as far as possible to imitate the character which he admired, became himself the fair ideal of a perfect knight, as courteous as he was brave, as humane as he was courteous, as pious as he was humane, uniting in himself the accomplishments of a hero, the feelings of a true patriot, and the virtues of a Christain and a saint.' (P. xxvii.) This would be enough to disarm the hostility which the example of the worthy Mr. Quixada himself is capable of exciting against the injudicious admirers of knight-errantry.

> 'The *Morte d'Arthur* was a favourite book with our ancestors, and continued to be printed till the middle of the 17th century, with much alteration of orthography, but very little change of language; and, were it again modernized in the same manner, and published as a book for boys, it could hardly fail of regaining its popularity.' — 'The present edition is a reprint with scrupulous exactness from the first edition by Caxton in Earl Spencer's library, that nobleman having, with his wonted liberality, permitted a transcript to be made from this most rare and valuable volume, for the purpose.'

Here we must pause: but with the design of returning to the work before us, and presenting our readers with a general and brief outline of the fable of this motley story: so that, without imposing on them the necessity of following the example, so toilsome to the light novel-readers of the present day, but which we have set them, of wading through two closely printed quartos, they may obtain some degree of intimacy with the principal characters and incidents that were so familiar to the imaginations of their ancestors. By a few concluding words, Mr. S. warns them what they have to expect, and we cannot do better than close the book for the present with extracting this passage:

> 'Nothing can be more inartificial in structure than the romances of the Round Table. Adventure produces adventure in infinite series; not like a tree, whose boughs and branches bearing a necessary relation and due proportion to each other, combine into one beautiful form, but resembling such plants as the prickly pear, where one joint grows upon another, all equal in size and alike in shape, and the whole making a formless and mis-shapen mass. Even this clumsy mode of transition is often disregarded, and the author passes from adventure to adventure without the slightest connection, introducing you without prologue or prelude of any kind to a new scene, and bringing forward a new set of personages.' —
>
> 'These folios were the only books of recreation when they were composed and printed; and in those ages large volumes were not regarded with that fear which is now felt by the busy, and affected by the superficial and vain. A folio romance was the stock of amusement for weeks or months; a dozen or a score of pages sufficed for the evening's reading; and perhaps more satisfaction was gained than lost by travelling thus deliberately through the story: it became an habitual pleasure. The rapidity of modern narration is less readily understood, and produces fainter effect;

these tales were slowly received, and made a profound impression, as slow showers penetrate the deepest; and hence it was that they so strongly affected the manners and morals of the age. As the manners have become obsolete, the fashion for such works has passed away; and now for the full enjoyment of them a certain aptitude is required, as it is for poetry and music; where that aptitude exists, perhaps no works of imagination produce so much delight. It is something like that pleasure which the poet and the painter partake from forest-scenery, or in following the course of a mountain-stream.' (Preface, xxxi, xxxii.)

[*To be continued.*]

Art. IV. *Travels in Canada, and the United States*, in 1816 and 1817. By Lieutenant Francis Hall, 14th Light Dragoons, H.P. 8vo. pp. 540. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Lieut. Hall is certainly not one of those "who travel from Dan to Beersheba and cry, 'Tis all barren." The camp, indeed, is a better school for the traveller through a newly settled country than the drawing-room; and we never find the present author fretful or indignant, because he cannot meet with the accommodations of London in the wilds of Canada or the back-settlements of the United States. He parts in good temper from his *compagnons de voyage* at New York, and appears to enter on his journey with the determination to be pleased with all that he could find praiseworthy in the characters or institutions of the people, without closing his eyes on their imperfections and their faults.

New York, in 1816, was reckoned to contain 100,000 inhabitants, and contracts were made for two thousand houses, to be built in the ensuing year; it contains also fifty churches or chapels of different sects; a proof, says Mr. H., that a national church is not indispensable for the maintenance of religion. — The punishment of death is abolished in the state of New York, in all cases except murder and arson; other crimes are repressed by confinement and labour; and 'to America belongs the glory of having first made the experiment of the least waste of life with which society can be preserved.' — The author proceeded from New York to Albany, and gives a short but clear description of the face of the country.

'At Kinderhook,' he says, 'we found a militia court-martial going forward. Curiosity induced us to step for a moment into the "hall of justice," where a scene presented itself on which Hogarth would have banquetted. The colonel president sat at the head of the table; a cocked hat, equal in size to three degenerate

Wellingtons of modern days, with a crimson feather, adorned his untrimmed locks, "'but redder than the plume so red" a nose all gemmed and carbuncled flamed beneath it; a coloured silk handkerchief was tied loosely round his neck; before him stood a large jug of whiskey punch, and beside it the swords of his fellow judges bundled together, while their owners in heterogeneous garb, half farmer, half soldier, sat round the table, posing in quaint phrase of guessing, and *mistering* the witnesses, who, to prevent discordant evidence, were all placed in court to hear one another's story.'

Mr. H. informs us that few houses in the villages are unprovided with some volumes of our popular writers, such as Edgeworth and Scott. When in the Museum at Albany, he saw for the first time three Oneida Indians, who came to borrow some articles of Indian dress and armoury, to be exhibited at the theatre. One of them, a very handsome young man, son of the principal chief, appeared on the stage in the evening, beating a kind of drum, and accompanying the war-dance with a low monotonous song. 'It seemed a melancholy sight; the sons of the once free masters of the soil exhibiting themselves to the scornful mirth of those who had spoiled them of their inheritance.'

Lieut. Hall crossed a part of Lake Champlain on a sleigh:

'The keen blasts of the north, sweeping over its frozen expanse, pierced us with needles of ice; the thermometer was 22° below zero: buffalo hides, bear-skins, caps, shawls, and handkerchiefs, were vainly employed against a degree of cold so much beyond our habits. Our guide alone of the party, his chin and eye-lashes gemmed and powdered with the drifting snow, boldly set his face and horses in the teeth of the storm. Sometimes a crack in the ice would compel us to wait, while he went forward to explore it with his axe; when having ascertained its breadth, and the foot-hold on either side, he would drive his horses at speed, and clear the fissure with its snow ridge at a flying leap.'

At Plattsburg, the theatre of our late naval and military misfortunes, Lieut. Hall says, 'we were particular in our inquiries into the position of the flotilla, that we might ascertain whether, as has been asserted, they were within cannon range from the shore: this we found at no time to have been the case, so that no movement on our part by land could have influenced the event of the naval action.' The fortifications are on the right bank of a little river called the Saranac; and the American commandant, who obligingly took our traveller through them, said that they were so ill prepared when Sir George Prevost's army first arrived before the place, that they had not even the gates hung. — 'Our retreat surprized them as much as it did many of our own people; it must however be observed, that though little or no doubt existed that the works, if attacked, would have been carried, the object of the expedition fell to the ground with the loss of the flotilla, by means of which alone the transport of stores and provisions could have been secured. The fight must have been for honour only, and Sir George Prevost certainly took the boldest part when he declined it.' If this account be correct, the censure which that officer received from public opinion was unmerited.

The Canadian frontier presents a striking contrast to the appearance of the country through which Mr. Hall had passed.

> 'Nothing,' he says, 'could be more Siberian than its aspect: a narrow road, choaked with snow, led through a wood in which patches were occasionally cleared on either side, to admit the construction of a few log-huts, round which a brood of ragged children, a starved pig, and a few half broken rustic implements, formed an accompaniment more suited to an Irish landscape than to the thriving scenes we had just quitted. The Canadian peasant is still the same unsophisticated animal whom we may suppose to have been imported by Jacques Cartier. The sharp unchangeable lineaments of the French countenance, set off with a blue or red night-cap, over which is drawn the hood of a grey capote, fashioned like a monk's cowl, a red worsted girdle, hair tied in a greasy leathern queue, brown mocassins of undressed hide, and a short pipe in his mouth, give undeniable testimony of the presence of Jean Baptiste. His horse seems to have been equally solicitous to shame neither his progenitors nor his owner, by any mixture with a foreign race. Now, too, the frequent cross by the road side, thickly studded with all the implements of crucifixional torture, begins to indicate a Catholic country; distorted virgins and ghastly saints decorate each inn-room, while the light spires of the parish-church, covered wish plates of tin, glitter across the snowy plain.'

Lieut. Hall admits that the Canadian peasant is ignorant and superstitious; yet, he says, if the share of his intellect exceed not much that of the ox which he drives, he may claim fellowship in this respect with the peasant of almost every country on the globe except the United States: but, 'essentially a Frenchman, he is gay, courteous, and contented; to strangers and travellers, he is invariably civil, seeming to value their good word beyond their money: he is reckoned parsimonious, because all his gains arise from his saving; he is satisfied with the humblest fare; and his utmost debauch never exceeds a "coup" of rum and pipe of tobacco, taken with a dish of gossip, the only luxury in which he can be accounted extravagant.' Great crimes are unknown, and petty offences are rare: but the late war, by calling a great number of the young men into the militia, has produced an evident change in their manner. The nature of this change we may infer from the following remark: 'I always found two invariable symptoms of a man's having *served:* a little more intelligence and a great deal more knavery.'

The Canadians bear a considerable antipathy to the Americans, whom they denominate "*sacres Bostonnais.*" Petty quarrels between them and the Vermontese keep this feeling alive; and the English, as the author observes, may well say of it in the words of Sir Lucius O'Trigger, "'Tis a pretty quarrel as it is, and explanation would spoil it."

Of the Catholic charitable institutions at Quebec, Mr. Hall speaks in terms of high praise. The Hôtel Dieu, and the General Hospital for the poor, sick, and mendicants, are managed with the greatest attention to neatness and the comforts of the patients, by the superiors and nuns in each. 'Grave men,' he observes, 'have indulged themselves in a sneer at the idea of young men being attended in sickness by nuns: but few who have any knowlege of the system of common hospitals can be at a loss to appreciate the difference betwixt the tender solicitude with which charity soothes for conscience-sake the bed of suffering, and the heartless grudging attention which hospital-nurses inflict on their victims.'

In Upper Canada, the scene changes; 'the system of farming is English or American, the low deep-roofed Canadian house gives place to the English farm-house, or Yankee fir-boarded mansion. Instead of churches we have taverns; gaols and assembly-rooms for convents, and a half-sulky nod for a French bow. Two Canadian postillions never meet without touching their hats. When the American or Englishman nods, 'tis like the growling salutation of a mastiff who has not quite leisure enough to turn and quarrel with you.' On the policy and wisdom of a war for the capture or the defence of Canada, Mr. Hall offers some judicious remarks. Emerging from a wilderness known only to the hunter and his prey, 'you double a head-land on the St. Lawrence, and a fleet of ships lies before you, several of which are as large as any on the ocean; others of equal dimensions are building on the spot where, a few months since, their frame-timbers were growing. Two sources of astonishment here rise on the mind: first, the magnitude of the resources called into action, and, secondly, the object which called them forth.' — The St. Lawrence man of war cost 300,000l.; the transport of the Psyche frigate in frame from Quebec cost 12,000l.; the commissariat disbursements at Kingston, during the war, were estimated at 1000l. per day; and the present (late) expence of the naval establishment is about 25,000l. per annum. Thus we are expending our 'blood and treasure in defence of a country, one half of which is little better than a barren waste of snows, and the other a wild forest scarcely intersected by a thread of population. This is the "*gros jeu*" of society.'

From Upper Canada, the author passed through the western country of New York and the Niagara frontier, and gives a concise but lively description of the scenery, the nature of the soil, and the manners of the people. We hasten, however, to visit Philadelphia, where we may expect to meet with American society in its most improved state. Lieut. Hall appears to us an impartial observer, well acquainted with the *agrémens* of polished life, and qualified to appreciate fairly the merits and defects of the American character.

> 'Society in Philadelphia (and what may be said on this point, with regard to Philadelphia, applies with double force to all other parts of America,) is yet in its infancy. By society, I mean the art of combining social qualities, so as to produce the highest degree of rational enjoyment; this supposes a common stock of ideas, on subjects generally interesting, and a manner of giving them circulation, by which the self-love of each may be at once roused and satisfied. Public amusements, the arts, such literary and philosophical topics as require taste and sensibility, without supposing a fatiguing depth of erudition, a morality rather graceful than austere, and a total absence of dogmatism on all subjects, constitute many of the materials for such an intercourse. In Philadelphia, public amusements are nothing; the fine arts little considered, because every man is sufficiently occupied with his own business; for the same reason, questions of mere speculation in literature or philosophy would be looked upon as a waste of time; in morality, every thing is precise; in religion, all is dogma. It may seem strange that a people so generally well informed as the Americans, should be so little sensible to literary enjoyments: not less curious is it, that the freest people upon earth should be straight-laced in morality, and dogmatical in religion: a moment's consideration will solve this seeming inconsistency. The Americans read for improvement, and to make a practical application of their knowledge: they collect honey for the hive, not to lavish its sweetness in social intercourse; hence the form is less considered than the matter, but it is the form which is principally the subject of taste. There is, besides, a principle of economy running through every department of society in the States: it is a saving of time, rather to import books than to write them; hence there is no class of authors, no literary emulation; criticism loses its interest when confined to the productions of foreigners; they may be read for profit or amusement, but they cannot be discussed, either in their faults or beauties, with the feeling inspired by the

writings of compatriots, whose reputation every member of society feels as connected with his own, and their glory as part of his patrimony. Again, piquancy in conversation supposes a certain persiflage, a latitude in opinion, which allows every thing to be said on every subject, provided it be said well: this kind of freedom, which appertains perhaps to a corruption of existing institutions, is singularly inapplicable to a country in which all moral duties are positive; and whatever is positive admits neither of speculation nor discussion.

'Religious toleration has produced in America an effect, which, though natural, is curiously the reverse of what the advocates for a church "by law established" commonly predict. A monopoly, either in trade or religion, goes far to produce stagnation and decrement; *ubi una, ibi nulla.* Zeal cools, and faith decays, under the indolent governance of chartered pastors; with whom such external compliance, as will assure them on the score of temporals, may be expected to form the chief part of their anxiety. When the monopoly is entirely close, the few in whose minds reason continues to assert her rights, have no resource but in such positive infidelity as will permit those outward compliances, that an heretical belief would regard as criminal. A free competition, on the contrary, not only stimulates the zeal of all, because one sect has no advantage over another, except what it acquires by its own exertions, but in the many shades of belief it offers to the public choice, there are few so fastidious as not to find some colour suitable to their own complexion; and as every proselyte is a genuine victory, the stray sheep from one fold are very quickly caught up and penned in another. There are 42 churches in Philadelphia: Roman Catholic, Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Quaker, Free Quaker, Swedish Lutheran, German Lutheran, German Reformed, Associate, Associate Reformed, Covenanters, Methodists, Christian church, Moravian, Universalist, Independent, Unitarian, Jewish. To fall in with none of these would indicate a surprising eccentricity of character, not likely to meet with much indulgence; and having chosen one, the American would consider that, like a trade, it was seriously to be followed, and no longer speculated upon.

'Politics are, indeed, a subject of high interest, whether in action or speculation, but for this very reason they are scarcely a fit topic for social relaxation, they are a part of every man's business, and are discussed as such: a pleasure too, which excludes the female half of society, scarcely belongs to the class of social enjoyments; yet the interest it excites will probably long render the Americans careless of the lighter beauties of conversational pleasure.

'I proceed to consider the manner necessary to give society its perfect grace. "All the politeness of the Americans," observes the Marquis de Chastellux, "is mere form, such as drinking healths to the company, observing ranks, giving up the right hand, &c., but they do nothing of this but what has been taught them; not a particle of it is the result of sentiment: in a word, politeness here is like religion in Italy, every thing in practice, but without any principle." I have myself seen a lad handing two young women out of a pot-house into the stage waggon, with all the gravity of a Master of the Ceremonies at Bath; in fact, this varnish is used to cover manners very frequently vulgar, and very rarely elegant. Manners to be vulgar must be affected; the meanest Indian is a gentleman, because he is composed and natural; add a desire to please, and you have all that society requires. A Frenchman is as anxious to please as he appears, because his vanity is gratified by success: his politeness is the natural expression of this anxiety, and pleases, as something natural. The American, on the contrary, silent and reflecting, occupies himself very little with the effect of what he says: "*Briller dans la société*" is to him an unmeaning phrase; his politeness is, therefore, no reflection of his feelings, but an artificial form he has borrowed, to hide a vacuum: — and what should have induced a sensible people to borrow a trapping so unsuited to their character? The vanity, probably, to rival the nations of Europe, in manners, as well as in arts and power: the French led the *ton* in fashions; and accident gave French fashions a double advantage in America: but they made the mistake of the nobleman who purchased Punch, and then wondered he exhibited none of the feats which had delighted him while in possession of the showman: — but I mistake; they have no such astonishment; they believe he actually does exhibit them all.

'I have proceeded too far in the discussion of manners without introducing the ladies, who have so great a share in forming them. Their cheeks may redden, perhaps, at my hard sayings, but I offer to replace their wreaths of tinsel with chaplets of pearls. Women bear a high rate in the American market, because they are scarce in proportion to the demand, in a country where all men marry, and marry young; consequently they are not called upon to make great exertions to captivate; they can do without striking accomplishments, and, to recur to a trading maxim, which they very well understand, there will seldom be more of a commodity reared for market than the consumption calls for. Female accomplishments are consequently in the same predicament with male politeness: they are cultivated upon a principle of vanity, to imitate the ladies of Europe; but they seldom enrich the understanding, or give elegance to the manners: — like the men, the ladies fall into the mistake of confounding fashions with manners, and think they import Parisian graces with Parisian bonnets: nay, this is little, they have improved the commodity: "the American ladies," as I have heard an American lady modestly observe, "unite French grace with English modesty." Happy combination, did it not neutralize the whole compound! Let us view them in their perihelion, at a ball or assembly. Chairs are arranged in a close semi-circle; the ladies file into the room, and silently take their seats beside each other, the men occupying the chord of the segment, vis-a-vis to their fair foes, (for such their cautious distance and rare communication would indicate them to be): the men in this situation discuss trade and politics; the ladies, fashions and domestic incidents, with all the quiet and gravity becoming the solemnity of the meeting: tea and coffee are handed about, and in due process of time, cakes and lemonade, &c.; should there be no dancing, the forces draw off, after having for several hours thus reconnoitred each other. When they dance, the men step forward, and, more by gesture than word, indicate their wishes to their fair partners. Cotillons then commence, with a gravity and perseverance almost pitiable. "Dancing," says the Marquis de Chastellux, "is said to be at once the emblem of gaiety and of love: here it seems to be the emblem of legislation and marriage." The animation displayed by the feet never finds its way into the countenance, to light up the eye, or deepen the rose on the cheek,

Which hangs in chill and lifeless lustre there,
Like a red oak-leaf in the wintry air;
While the blue eye above it coldly beams,
Like moonlight radiance upon frozen streams.

'One conceives, on these occasions, how dancing may become as it is among the Shakers, a religious ceremony. M. Volney is inclined to deduce from the sour Presbyterianism of the first settlers in New England, "*Le ton cérémonieux, l'air grave et silencieux, et toute l'étiquette guindée qui règne encore dans la société des femmes des États Unis.*" Notwithstanding the multiplicity of sects in America, they all take their tone from the austerest, that they may lose none of the advantages resulting from the appearance of superior sanctity: in this way, people of all creeds are screwed up to the pitch of Calvinistic stiffness: gallantry itself assumes a solemn and serious air: the god of love has laid aside his torch and purple wings, and steps a merchant's clerk, well versed in the mysteries both of grace and gain. Society, under these circumstances, becomes instead of the feast, the fast of self-love. With scarcely any communication of sentiment between the sexes, there is no collision to strike out the sparkles of wit, nor any sympathy of tastes to kindle feeling or give the expression of it animation. Parties separate as if they had performed a duty, and meet to perform one again. — I have thus far touched on the deficiencies of American females, let me speak their praise. Their good qualities are of a sterling kind: good wives, good mothers, prudent housekeepers, they may bid defiance to the satirist, until they quit the hallowed circle of domestic virtues, to flutter heavily on the light airs of vanity: through their affectation only are they vulnerable. Should it be objected that domestic virtues alone are insufficient to give the human mind its fullest expansion, to produce a De Stael or an Edgeworth, we may reply that the energetic feelings which nourish the soul of genius, though, to their immediate possessor they may, according to circumstances, be productive either of pain or pleasure, yet in their general growth are invariably attached to a state of social suffering: there must be a war of elements to engender the thunderbolt. In America, life moves evenly, for every one is thriving in his proper place. Misfortune when it occurs, as where does it not? flows from individual miscalculation, and has, therefore, none of the solemn character of fatality, which it bears in a social system more defectively organized.'

The picture of American society given by Lieut. Hall we are inclined to believe is faithful: but it does not represent the American character as amiable. Indeed, thirst of gain, religious gloominess, and arrogant self-sufficiency, are the prevailing moral diseases of the country. Much of what is austere, selfish, or intolerant in the American character, he ascribes to the prevalence of rigid uncompromising Calvinism; this is the sacred fire that burns in the hearts and on the altars of the New Englanders with an angry light, round which the timbrels and trumpets of the priests still sound in dreadful harmony: though human sacrifices are no longer permitted, as on their first arrrival, when many peaceable Quakers were most cruelly tortured and hung by the Puritans.

'It is true (says the author) this spirit is to a certain extent mitigated by the partial influence of good sense, and by the temper of the age, but it is still the same in essence, and waits but a favourable opportunity to prove itself the same in action.—This spirit is now rapidly spreading through all parts of the Union, sometimes indeed in a manner which may well provoke a smile, but more frequently with a rigidity of aspect before which the graces and pleasures of life wither. The Americans are habitually serious and silent, even beyond English taciturnity. Their spirits are seldom elevated, except by the application of some extraordinary stimulant, either in the shape of politics or liquor; they are thus excellently fitted to become vessels of election and regeneration: the sour leaven ferments through their frames, until all the kindlier juices curdle, and happiness becomes a deadly sin.'

On the situation of the negroes in the southern states, Mr. Hall gives some interesting information; and he expresses his abhorrence of slavery and the evils which it produces, in terms of high moral indignation. He is inclined, however, to indulge the hope that the total extinction of slavery in the United States is an event neither improbable nor very far distant. Even in Virginia, he remarks, slavery has few supporters out of the immediate classes of dealers and planters. All others, both farmers and men of every description, he says, express their dislike to it; not indeed as a violation of humanity, but as a political evil which has substituted bad labour for good, and an unsound population for an healthy one. The only advocates are stated to be the planters near the coast, where infectious rice-grounds can be cultivated by negroes alone. We have, however, the satisfaction of learning that these rice-lands are constantly diminishing by the accumulation of sand-banks, which remove the reach of the tide to a greater distance; and these lands make no adequate return if beyond the reach of the tide-way. Mr. H. thinks that the actual condition of the slaves in Virginia and the Carolinas cannot be ascertained directly by the traveller, but may be in some measure inferred from the laws by which they are protected. From a provisional act passed in the Carolinas in 1740, and made perpetual in 1783, he has given several extracts: it appears to be the slave-code of these States. We have not room to enter fully on the subject, but we shall briefly give the substance of some of the articles. — Slavery is rendered perpetual, and every negro is presumed to be a slave, unless he can prove the contrary. The evidence of all free negroes and of any slave, without oath, shall be admitted against a slave. — Any person wilfully murdering a slave shall forfeit 100l. sterling; if he kill him in a passion, or by undue correction, he shall forfeit 50l. — For cutting out the tongue or dismembering, he shall pay a penalty of 14l. — A penalty of 45l. is incurred for teaching a slave to write. — This act, with unblushing impudence, gravely recites "*that cruelty is highly unbecoming those who profess themselves Christians.*" Where such is the nature of the protection yielded by the law, it is an insult to common sense to talk of the happy condition of the negroes. Lieut. Hall informs us that 'this code is not in any point a dead letter, and the fears of the proprietors are tremblingly alive, and racked with the dread of insurrection, in which they must expect the measure they have meted.'

The author paid a visit at Monticello to the enlightened and venerable Thomas Jefferson, Ex-President of the United States, of whom he justly speaks in terms of high praise. 'I found Mr. Jefferson (he says) tall in person, but stooping and lean with old age, thus exhibiting that fortunate mode of bodily decay, which strips the frame of its most cumbersome parts, leaving it still strength of muscle, and activity of limb. His deportment was at first serious and even cold, but in a very short time relaxing into a most agreeable amenity; with an unabated flow of conversation on the most interesting topics, discussed in the most gentlemanly manner.'

We cannot take our leave of Lieut. Hall, without expressing our approbation of the good sense, and the good temper, which are evinced in the present volume. In some parts, the style has a little appearance of affectation, and the author makes several rather unsuccessful attempts at wit. His poetical effusions, with which on some occasions he has favoured us, we would recommend in future to be confined to the circle of his own friends; their chief if not their only merit consisting in their brevity. He cannot make the apology for introducing his poetry into a book of travels, "How could I help it, since the gods have made me poetical?" for assuredly the Muse has not looked with the "eye benign" (" *placido lumine*") on his birth. Almost every page of the volume, however, abounds with information or entertainment.—A Map of the Niagara frontier is prefixed: but an index is wanting.

ART. V. *Sketches of America.* A Narrative of a Journey of Five Thousand Miles, through the Eastern and Western States of America; contained in Eight Reports addressed to the Thirty-nine English Families by whom the Author was deputed, in June 1817, to ascertain whether any and what Part of the United States would be suitable for their Residence. With Remarks on Mr. Birkbeck's "Notes" and "Letters." By Henry Bradshaw Fearon. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 454. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

THE actual circumstances and probable advancement of America, as connected with emigration to that country, daily grow more interesting to the English public; and our stock of information on this subject has lately been increasing with great rapidity. In the volume before us, a remarkable fact is stated even in the title-page; and we farther learn that the reports which it contains are principally intended to convey information to mechanics and tradesmen respecting the prices of labour, and of various manufactured goods, in different parts of the United States. That Mr. Fearon has executed this part of his mission with fidelity, we are willing to believe: but, as his acquaintance with the actual state of society in England appears to have been confined to London and its immediate suburbs, he was not qualified for taking an enlarged and impartial comparative view of the American character. His first edition is dated from Plaistow in Essex, and every object which occurs in his travels seems to be brought into comparison with London and its vicinity, and is found wanting. The inns in the back-settlements have not any accommodations for travellers that can vie with the taverns in Bishopsgate-Street; nor are the boors and backwoods-men so courteous as the city-shop-keepers. Even the solid accompaniments of ham, eggs, and dried fish, which are seen on the American breakfast-tables with the coffee, offend the delicacy of a stomach 'accustomed to a London breakfast of tea and toast;' and Mr. Fearon seems not to be aware that these dishes, at which he so much revolts, may be found in the breakfast-parlour of almost every gentleman's family in England.

If, however, Mr. F. may be deficient in the qualifications necessary to take an impartial view of other nations, the want of information is abundantly supplied by *feeling*, of a sort which manifests itself whenever he describes the manners or character of that population with which he says America is '*cursed.*' Somewhat facetiously, he dedicates his book to the 'Friends of Civil and Religious Liberty throughout Great Britain and Ireland:' we say rather facetiously, because, having attended the Methodist church in Philadelphia, he proceeds to make this declaration: —'*Were I an absolute lawgiver, I would certainly punish and restrain men who set so wicked an example of religious blasphemy, and so foully libelled the name and character of Revelation.*' Yet the intemperate zeal of these Methodists, if we take Mr. Fearon's description, literally does not exceed that which is frequently to be seen in many of the Tabernacles of the Society in Wales and Cornwall at the present day; and, however absurd their zeal may appear, need we say that we should strongly deprecate any interference of the civil power with the rights of conscience? Under the pretence of repressing blasphemy, bigots in every age have been ready to light the fires of persecution, and to destroy alike the innocent enthusiast or the enlightened philosopher who dared to depart from established forms and creeds of human fabrication. We would ask what these Ebenezer Methodists have done to deserve the punishment which this friend of religious liberty wishes to inflict? The answer in plain truth is this: within the walls of their own church they have, in imitation of antient practices, "raised their voices together, singing, and shouting, and glorifying God, for their deliverance from sin and Satan." In so doing, however extravagant their gestures, and however loud their praises, they have not disturbed the peace nor broken the moral ties of society; and, though we regret that so much ignorance still prevails among any sect of Christians, it is impossible to deny that this very extravagance has had much effect in terrifying and ultimately reforming the ferocious and dissolute among the miners and colliers of Cornwall, Somersetshire, and Northumberland. We thank God that we live in a land in which the legislators and magistrates partake little of a persecuting spirit. In the instance of Johanna

Southcote, they had a pretext for repressing blasphemy by force: but they wisely followed the advice of the Jewish ruler; "Let her alone; if this thing be of man, it will come to nought."

Mr. Fearon's opinions respecting the state of American society appear to be as crude and imperfect as his notions of religious toleration. The want of urbanity in the inhabitants of the remote towns in the United States, of which he gives so many instances, would have excited less surprise had he ever visited the minor provincial towns in England, remote from the great public roads. Among the small farmers collected at the inns on a market-day, or among the small master-manufacturers in Yorkshire or Lancashire, he would have seen as little courtesy at the public dinners as he found in the state of Kentucky, or on the banks of the Ohio. The bulk of the population throughout the United States procure the means of subsistence with great ease, and, according to Mr. Fearon's own statement, 'are relieved from all anxious cares for the morrow, which gives them a feeling of independence:' but the facility with which the necessaries of life may be obtained does not apply to the refinements of social intercourse; and men who are enjoying all that is substantially wanting for their support may be, and frequently are, inferior in the civility of their manners to Englishmen who are on the same par with them with respect to property. The Americans are on the whole less attentive to personal and domestic cleanliness than the English: but it should be recollected that no inconsiderable part of the American population consists of emigrants from Ireland, Scotland, and Germany. "*Cœlum non animum mutant;*" and we cannot expect that a sudden removal to America should at once reform their habits. In comparing the cleanliness of the Americans, the parallel should be drawn not with England exclusively, but with the sister-kingdoms. Now let any person, who has seen the unspeakable filthiness of the Highland hut, or of the Irish cabin, or of the farm-houses of the German boors, declare whether they can find any thing worse in the log-cabin of the back-settler. If we stigmatize the dirt of American towns, we must not overlook the loathsome filth and heart-rending misery which so abundantly overflow in the outskirts and even in the interior of Dublin; nor must we forget that *sweet canny Edinburgh* still assails the nose of the traveller, by day and by night, with far other perfumes than those which are exhaled from "Araby the blest." In forming a fair estimate of New York or Philadelphia, let them be viewed with the capitals of Dublin and the Old Town of Edinburgh; and in describing the manners of the inhabitants of American towns many hundred miles inland, let them be compared with those in the remote provinces of England: we may then more fairly appreciate their merits or their defects. Of American manners, in truth, our readers will find a more just and more lively description in the travels of Mr. Hall, (see the preceding article,) than in the present work. Mr. F. appears to have had few opportunities of coming in contact with the most respectable part of American society; viz. the antient families, who have gradually risen to a state of opulence, and have at the same time made considerable progress in intellectual cultivation and the courtesies of social life: — men possessing much good sense and general information, who reside on their own estates in great comfort, but who are rather shy towards strangers, unless very well introduced: they are the true country-gentlemen of America, and are to be found in the older settled states, particularly Pennsylvania and Virginia.

Of the state of the slaves in those parts of the Union in which slavery is tolerated, Mr. Fearon draws a gloomy picture. We most sincerely concur with him in the reprobation of slavery in every form: but we can by no means admit that slavery has so many advocates in America as he describes. The corroborating testimony of Mr. Birkbeck, Mr. Palmer, and Mr. Hall, as well as that of some intelligent travellers whom we have recently had an opportunity of seeing after their return from the United States, confirms the opinion that slavery is regarded as a great evil, which the people generally are desirous of removing, if it were practicable; and Mr. Hall encourages the consoling hope that the period of its abolition is not far distant. It should be recollected that the American republic, at its commencement, found slavery firmly established in the greater part of the States; and that it is an evil which did not emanate from the revolution.

Some of the barbarous practices, of which instances still remain in parts of the southern States, we consider as too limited to affect the character of the people. What should we say of the fairness of the traveller who, in describing England, brought forwards occasional acts of cruelty to chimney-sweepers or parish-apprentices, or the practices of throwing at cocks, bull-baiting, and duck-hunting, as proofs of the general cruelty and depravity of the English character? Yet we do not think that Mr. Fearon's inferences from occasional acts of cruelty to slaves, or from the practice of '*gouging*' or '*gander-pulling*,' are more fair, when applied to the population of the United States.

Of the author's route it may be proper to give a concise description. He landed at New York, visited Boston, and returned through the former city to Philadelphia; whence he advanced by Pittsburg to the western country, viz. to the state of Ohio and the Illinois territory: but he has not added any facts of importance to the statements before given by Mr. Birkbeck and Mr. Palmer, with the exception of the prices of mechanical labour, which are stated more in detail by Mr. Fearon. His want of agricultural knowlege, indeed, incapacitated him from affording any original information respecting countries that are exclusively agricultural: but he adopted a singular mode of estimation, viz. that of counting the number of cows and pigs, which were to be seen on each side of the road in passing from one station to another. — He proceeded down the Mississippi to New Orleans; performing the last 300 miles of the voyage in a steam-boat, in which the fare, including board, was 3l. 7s. 6d. sterling; and the time of the passage was 56 hours. Of the city of New Orleans, we have hitherto seen no good description, and the information given in the present volume is extremely meagre. We are told, however, 'that the increase of this city, since it has become a part of the United States, is truly extraordinary, affording another proof of the advantages possessed by a people who are unshackled.' Instead of the right of monopoly purchased by individuals from the parent-country, or from viceroys and governors, every man is now left to pursue the bent of his own inclinations in commerce, 'and to go to the full extent of his means.' — 'The consequence of this state of things (adds Mr. F.) is that the United States are making unprecedented strides towards substantial wealth and national greatness, *though cursed, as I am sorry — mortified, to the heart* to be obliged to confess, with a population undeserving of their exuberant soil and free government.' The population of New Orleans is said to be 30,000: among whom the French language still predominates. The general manners and habits are described as being very relaxed, and provisions as of a bad quality and dear; yet, says Mr. F., 'to all men whose desire only is to be rich, and to live a short life but a merry one, I have no hesitation in recommending New Orleans.'

From this city, Mr. Fearon proceeded to Washington and the State of Virginia, but by what conveyance we are not told. As his remarks on that State do not seem intitled to any particular notice, we shall turn to that part of his work which has the best claim to the attention of those to whom it appears principally addressed, — the labouring classes and small tradesmen. In New York, we learn, the price of beef is from 3½d. to 6d. per lb. and that of other butcher's meat nearly in the same proportion. Geese sell from 2s. 3d. to 3s. 11d., and Turkies of large size from 3s. 4d. to 5s. 7d. Flour per barrel, weighing 196 lbs., 46s. to 49s. Common ale, 5½d. per quart. Apples, 10d. per peck. Lobsters, 2d. per lb. Brown sugar, 7d. per lb. Lump sugar, from 13d. to 16d., &c. &c. The quality of provisions is in general good. Clothing and domestic utensils are from 25 to 100 per cent. dearer than in England, except India-goods, which are much cheaper. Rents vary according to situation, but in general are considerably higher than in London. In Philadelphia, the prices of provisions seem to be nearly the same. Mechanics pay from 13s. 6d. to 15s. 9d. for their board and lodging. Moderate boarding is rated from 20s. 6d. to 27s.; genteel ditto, 31s. to 54s.; charge of the best inns, 9s. per day, exclusive of beer and other liquors. The wages of labourers are 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7d. per day; of female servants, 4s. 6d. to 9s. per week; of cooks, 6s. 9d. to 9s.; of men-servants, 54s. to 67s. 6d. per month. Carpenters earn from 36s. to 47s. 6d. per week, working from sun-rise to sun-set: Bricklayers, 37s. 6d. to 45s.; tinmen, 27s. to 54s.; shoemakers, 31s. 6d. to 40s. 6d.; taylors, 36s. to 45s.; printers, (compositors and pressmen) from 36s. to 45s. per week. The above prices are calculated in English money. — At Pittsburg the payment of labour is rather less, but may be stated to range from 31s. 6d. to 50s. per week, according to the nature of the employment.

Towards the conclusion of the volume, Mr. Fearon has given a summary of his opinions respecting emigration, which are written in a more impartial and dispassionate style than other parts of the work, and are well intitled to the attention of those who have any design of emigrating to America.

> ' In going to America, I would say generally, the emigrant must expect to find — not an economical or cleanly people; not a social or generous people; not a people of enlarged ideas; not a people of liberal opinions, or towards whom you can express your thoughts "free as air;" not a people friendly to the advocates of liberty in Europe; not a people who understand liberty from investigation and from principle; not a people who comprehend the meaning of the words "honour" and "generosity." On the other hand he will find a country possessed of the most enlightened civil and political advantages; a people reaping the full reward of their own labours, a people not paying tythes, and not subjected to heavy taxation without representation; a people with a small national debt; a people without spies and informers; a people without an enormous standing army; a people in pos-

session of an extent of territory capable of sustaining an increase of millions and tens of millions of population; and a people rapidly advancing towards national wealth and greatness.

'The classes of British society who would be benefited by an exchange of country, are, I conceive, first, that large and much injured body of men, who are here chained to the country and the political system, which oppresses and grinds them to the earth, — I mean *our extreme poor.* They would not be in America a week, before they would experience a rapid advance in the scale of being. Instead of depending for subsistence upon charity soup, occasional parochial relief, and bowing with slavish submission to the tyrant of the poor-house; they would, if industrious and willing to labour, earn 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. a day, have meat at least seven times in the week, and know "no one who could make them afraid." The second class would be the mechanics, in branches of first necessity, with the general exclusion, however, of those acquainted with the British staple manufactures of cotton and woollen only: but for others, whose earnings here are under 30s. a week, or whose employment is of that precarious nature, that they cannot reasonably calculate, by the exercise of prudence and economy, on laying by any thing for what is called "a rainy day," or on making a provision for old age, — for such persons as these, *particularly if they have, or anticipate the having a family,* emigration to America will certainly advance their pecuniary interests, though it may not enlarge their mental sphere of enjoyments. To these two classes, I would further add that of the small farmer who has a family, for whom he can now barely provide the necessaries of life, and concerning a provision for whom, when his own grey hairs are approaching to the grave, he can look forward with but little confidence or satisfaction; to such a man, if he should have one hundred pounds clear, that is, after paying all his expences of removal, &c., America decidedly offers inducements very superior to those afforded by this country. Such a father would there feel himself relieved from a load of anxiety, the weight of which upon his spirits, and its influence in repressing his exertions, he is perhaps himself scarcely aware of, till he feels the difference by comparison when he has shaken it off in the New World; — but still to every proposed emigrant, even of these classes, I would say, that he must not expect to find either the country full of gold, or its inhabitants as agreeable or as sociable as the perhaps unequalled people of England. He must prepare too for very many privations, and should previously have the *mind* of his family, particularly that of the mother of his children, so entirely in unison with his own, that they can all have the fortitude and good sense necessary to bear under the numerous privations they will certainly be subjected to, keeping in mind the substantial advantages they will enjoy, and setting off present evil against their future and increasing prosperity, which, in such a country, with a soil yet uncultivated, and in the infancy of its resources, may be considered as almost insured to them.'

An appendix contains some advice to emigrants respecting the articles necessary to be taken with them, and suggests some precautions which will be found useful on their arrival: together with a table of the United States' duties on various articles of British manufacture.

The tone of ill temper which this author usually manifests in speaking of the American character, or of American manners, has gained for his work the approbation of persons who regard that country with peculiar jealousy. The first edition is dated from Plaistow; the second, from the Adelphi; and, if the volume proceeds to a third edition, we should not despair of seeing it dated from some office in the Treasury. To form a just and enlarged view of a nation, however, we must not bring it into comparison with any ideal standard of excellence, but with the actual state of other countries to which it may bear the greatest resemblance. It is possible to draw two pictures of England as unlike to each other "as Hyperion to a Satyr," and yet both may be true portraits. The one should delineate the barbarous manners and practices prevailing among the lower classes, — the extreme oppression of the children in the various manufactories, — the miserable state of the labouring poor, — the violation of the most sacred ties with indifference by the oaths taken at the custom-house, — the frequency of horrid murders, — the wretched state of many of our prisons, — the impressment of seamen, — the venality of senators, and a long train of gloomy *et cætera* in the back ground. The other should depict all that is truly excellent in the English character and manners, — the order, cleanliness, and comfort of the middle and higher classes, — our numerous well regulated charities, — the generous devotion of many in the higher ranks of life, who dedicate their time and talents to promote the best interests of mankind, — and a crowd of virtues that justly adorn our national character might be placed in the picture. It would be impossible to deny that both delineations were correct as far as they went, but neither of them would give a true view of the real state of England. Mr. Fearon's "Sketches of America" are drawn in the sombre style of the first of these pictures. We would recommend it to him to look a little more attentively at home before he again calls the population of America 'cursed:' for the vices and failings which he deprecates may perhaps be found on this side of the Atlantic; and the advice may not be irrelevant, "Cast out first the beam out of thine own eye, and then shalt thou see clearly to pull out the mote that is in thy brother's eye."

Art. VI. *The Campaign of* 1815; or, a Narrative of the Military Operations which took Place in France and Belgium during the Hundred Days. Written at St. Helena by General Gourgaud. Illustrated with a Map of the principal Theatre of the War. 8vo. pp. 234. 10s. Boards. Ridgway. 1818.

Public curiosity has been so much excited by the appearance of this work, and by the subsequent arrest of its author in London, followed by the forcible conveyance of him to the Continent, that we conceive it to be necessary for us to enter more fully into an examination of its contents, than perhaps even the interest of the subject discussed in it would otherwise have prompted us. As, however, the mass of our readers are in possession of the principal facts which have occurred in the life of M. Gourgaud, we shall not attempt a detail of those circumstances, but merely offer a general outline of his late career.

General Gourgaud has had peculiar facilities, from his relative situation with the Ex-Emperor of France, for collecting materials to form a detailed history of the eventful *Cent Jours;* he was one of that personage's principal aides-de-camp at the battle of Waterloo; followed his Commander in his flight to Paris; and, with Count de las Casas, was sent as an envoy on board the Bellerophon, to treat for the surrender of Bonaparte. He then accompanied his master in his exile to St. Helena, and remained there with him for a considerable time; at last quitting the island in consequence, as it is said, of a disagreement with Count Bertrand. His return to Europe and his arrival in London have been recorded in the daily prints; soon afterward, he published the work which we are about to examine; and speedily after that event he was suddenly sent out of this country, under the provisions of the bill passed in the last session of parliament, to regulate the abode of foreigners in Great Britain.

Various contradictory statements have appeared in the news-papers, respecting the circumstances of this officer's deportation; and so very differently are these details given by the writers, that it is alike impossible to follow them in their descriptions and to judge of their reasonings on the subject. Not less various have been the opinions which these journalists have offered concerning the probable causes of the affair. Some have imagined that the Ex-General had been detected in attempting to convey secret intelligence to his fallen monarch, and in endeavouring to excite a party in England to take measures for his release. Others, again, have thought that the work on the Campaign of 1815 has been the cause of the author's removal. Of the former conjecture we can give no developement; and the latter appears so far unlikely, that we perceive nothing in the pages of the book which could be of sufficient importance to create a necessity for exiling the writer. We shall, however, examine its contents carefully, as we proceed, and again advert to this subject when we shall have finished our investigation.

Of all the various publications on the singular events that passed during the Hundred Days, which comprized the second transitory reign of Napoleon Bonaparte, none has excited a greater share of the public attention than the narrative now before us. Written as it is by an eye-witness, indeed, it possesses more claims to our notice than any of those performances on the same subject which have been compiled from public records, and from hear-say, by persons who were totally unacquainted with military affairs, and were for the most part residing, during the period described in their histories, at a distance from the scene of action. Impartiality, moreover, has not always prevailed in the minds of these writers; and hence their pages often contain extravagant eulogiums, or hyperbolical narrations of circumstances which national vanity and feelings have construed in their own way. We are aware that these feelings will ever reign paramount; and that contemporaneous authors, describing battles and great political occurrences, will always bend the weak bow of history in such a manner that, if it be impossible to turn their shafts against the enemies of their country, they will take care to make them fall as nearly as may be in that direction. Historic details of our own times are, therefore, rarely worthy of implicit reliance; national pride, political animosity, fear of power, and personal concern, are the obstacles which the foe of truth places in the front of his legions; and these formidable enemies are seldom overcome. Posthumous relations of such events are alone likely to afford the real light; the historian has then the choice of his materials; he may reject falsehood where truth is evident; and he no longer fears to avow the fact.

Accordingly, in examining the pages of the work now before us, it is probable that we shall frequently differ with the author; for it is scarcely to be expected that a man placed as he was, in a very elevated station under Napoleon, and sharing as he did in his glories and his misfortunes, can possess a mind so perfectly unbiassed as to record events by which he has been one of the greatest sufferers, with all the impartiality of an historian personally unconnected with the results of such a war. The case is not altered when we are told, in the preface, that the writer has availed himself of the opinions of his master in composing his work: for, surely, if we must look on this performance as having received the sanction of the captive at St. Helena, the chance of disinterestedness is not increased. — General Gourgaud also asserts that his motive for assuming the character of an historical author, on this occasion, has arisen from the actual knowlege which he possesses of the events here transmitted to posterity; by which he conceived himself bound to make an endeavour to dispel the mists of error that have floated over the horizon of his sovereign's last reign. With all the apparent feelings of a military man, he disclaims political allusions; affirming that he has only mentioned such topics when they unavoidably occurred in the thread of his narrative. Destiny, according to him, decided the fate of Napoleon and of France. If this last sentiment be allowable to a conquered soldier, still we must differ with him on that head; and, although we grant his position that the arrangements of the Ex-Emperor were admirable, yet we must maintain that destiny had not quite so large a share in the result.

The preface concludes with these words: 'Ah, Napoleon, why didst thou not die at Waterloo!' Here, however, the author is at variance with himself; his melancholy reflections had harrowed up his feelings; and, in a subsequent part of the volume, which we shall point out in its proper place, he surely forgot that he had expressed such a wish, when he informs us that the fallen chieftain did intend to die at Waterloo, but was prevented by his brave companions from rushing to his fate, — among whom his aide-de-camp Gourgaud was no doubt the foremost.

We now come to the matter of the work itself; which is divided into twelve chapters, and is followed by an appendix containing seventeen articles designed to illustrate the chapters, consisting chiefly of official documents relating to Waterloo. The battle at that place, and its consequences, occupy in course by far the greatest part of the volume: but it contains also some chapters which are introductory to the description of that tremendous conflict, and which are devoted to explain the means that Bonaparte had adopted to enable him to meet his foes. We have carefully perused this part of the detail, in connection with most of the publications of merit on the same subject that have already issued from the press; and we must say that it appears to us that General Gourgaud has given a tolerably faithful and well written detail of the methods taken to recruit the broken army of

France, and to cause it once more to assume its former imposing aspect.

When Bonaparte, then titular sovereign of Elba, arrived at the Tuileries, his first thoughts were turned towards reorganizing his troops; which task was the more difficult because a great part of France remained either hostile to his government, or uncertain how to act: the Duc d'Angouleme not having given up his hopes until the 16th of April, nearly a month after the entry of Napoleon into Paris, which took place on the 20th of March 1815. With a mass of difficulties opposing him, which would have appalled an ordinary mind, Bonaparte actively engaged himself in this work; and, in the month of June, he had an effective army ready for the field, consisting of 120,000 infantry, 30,000 cavalry, and an excellent train of artillery: while his engineer-force amounted to about 5,000 picked men and tried officers. Paris and Lyons were chosen as the central points from which this army was to act, and its *materiel* was to be supplied; while, in case of failure on the frontiers, these cities were to become the rallying points, and in fact the places of *dernier ressort*. They were accordingly thrown into a state of defence, and garrisoned chiefly by the national guard. From Paris towards the frontiers of Belgium, all the fortified towns on the lines of communication were put in a condition to resist attacks.

While these preparations for the enemy were carrying on, the army was divided into seven *corps de bataille*, four corps of observation, and one to watch La Vendée. It will be necessary for the information of our readers to state where the seven corps for active operations, and their leaders, were stationed. The first was at Lille, commanded by General D'Erlong, and consisted of 18,000 infantry and 15,000 cavalry: the second was in Valenciennes, equally strong, and commanded by General Reille: the third, under the orders of Vandamme, was at Mesieres, with three divisions of infantry and one of cavalry: the fourth, under Gerard, was at Metz, and was not so strong as the third: the fifth, under General Rapp, was in Alsace, of the same number of divisions as the third: the sixth, commanded by General Lobau, and consisting of nine regiments of infantry and three of cavalry, occupied Laon, and had detached three regiments into La Vendée: the seventh corps, intrusted to Marshal Suchet, had two divisions of infantry, one of cavalry, and two divisions of National Guards. The army of reserve occupied the country between the Aisne, the Meuse, and the Sambre, of which the light cavalry was commanded by Pajol, the dragoons by Excelmans, and the cuirassiers by Mil-hault and Kellerman; the whole under Marshal Grouchy. The artillery attached to all *corps d'armée* consisted of eight pieces of cannon for each division of infantry; a horse artillery-train of six guns for every division of cavalry; and a reserve of eight twelve pounders to each army-corps.

With this force, Bonaparte resolved to enter Belgium, and assume the offensive; determining, however, only to put in motion the first, second, third, fourth, and sixth *corps de bataille*, with the Imperial Guard, the reserve cavalry, the *corps de Génie*, and his disposable artillery, amounting altogether to 115,000 men, and 350 pieces of cannon; and with this immense army he projected the passage of the Sambre at Charleroi.

We have followed the author and the official accounts of the period which he describes thus far, without having had occasion to reflect on his want of accuracy; his distribution and numerical account of the force of Napoleon's army being in accordance with that which has been given by other writers, who are worthy of credit: but, in proceeding to develope the magnitude of the allied English, Prussian, and Belgic troops, he has passed over one little circumstance, which in all probability he conceived it to be right to overlook. The Prussian army, he says, amounted to 120,000 men, divided into four corps, under Generals Ziethen, Borstell, Thielman, and Bulow; the whole commanded by Marshal Blucher: — the Anglo-Belgic troops, under the Duke of Wellington, consisted of more than 102,500 men: — Blucher's artillery amounted to 300 pieces of cannon, and that of Wellington to 250; — while the Prussians had 18,000 cavalry, and their allies 15,000.

Now, our military readers, and in fact all who have taken the trouble to examine the relations which have been given from official sources, well know that, in consequence of the necessity for garrisoning several important posts, and the various detachments which were imperiously made from the two armies, the above strength of 222,500 allied troops was reduced to the disposable force of 170,000: of which only 70,000 were under the Duke of Wellington, the remainder being with Marshal Blucher, and of this remainder a large portion consisting of raw soldiers who had never seen any service.

General Gourgaud describes the manner in which Bonaparte very ably concealed his movements from the Prussians, and adds in the Appendix two orders of the day, well calculated to shew in what a decisive manner the French leader made his dispositions. It is perfectly evident that all the hopes of Napoleon rested on his being able to attack the two armies in detail, and that this he in some measure accomplished. Charleroi was taken without much resistance; the corps of General Ziethen, giving way to such overpowering numbers, fell back on the main body, by the two roads leading to Brussels and Namur; and they were followed by Pajol and Lefebvre Desnouettes on the Brussels road, which passed through the villages of Gosselies, Frasnes, Genappe, and Waterloo. On this occasion, some skirmishing took place, but General Ziethen again retired. Bonaparte, knowing that the most important point on the road to Brussels was at Quatre Bras, a place situated half way between Frasnes and Genappe, and where four roads intersect each other, one leading to Waterloo and Brussels, one to Namur, one to Nivelles, and one to Charleroi, determined to take immediate possession of it, and accordingly ordered Marshal Ney to advance and establish himself there: but in that admirable position Prince Bernard of Saxony, with a brigade of 4,000 men, had taken post after having retreated from Frasnes.

Thus ended, with the exception of an unsuccessful attack on the Prussian corps of Ziethen, by Bonaparte in person, the day of the 15th of June. Prince Bernard had kept Marshal Ney and his 40,000 men in check with 4,000 Belgic troops; and General Ziethen foiled Napoleon, Grouchy, and Vandamme, in all their attempts on his division.

We are now arriving at a period of General Gourgaud's history, in which affairs of the utmost moment are about to be described: but we cannot pass over in silence the following remark:

> 'It will naturally be asked why Ney did not establish himself at Quatre Bras. It would appear that the recollection of his conduct in 1814, and lastly, in March 1815, had occasioned a kind of mental derangement, which manifested itself in all his actions. Though the bravest of men in battle, Marshal Ney frequently committed mistakes in his field dispositions. Being informed by his light cavalry that the enemy had but a small force at Quatre Bras, he thought it most prudent to stop on a line with the cannonade, which he heard on his right; and dispatched Girard's division as an advanced guard to Fleurus. Wishing it, however, to appear, that he had executed his orders, he reported to his Majesty, that he was occupying Quatre Bras by an advanced guard, and that his main body was close behind.'

This statement, with two or three previous passages of the same complexion, shew that Bonaparte and his aide-de-camp wish to throw some portion of the blame, attending the loss of Waterloo, on the head of a man whose death has secured them from a denial of their assertions on his part.

'On the night of the 15th,' says the General, 'the respective positions of the three armies were as follow: the French head-quarters at Charleroi, the Prussian at Namur, and the English at Brussels.' We have then a section, too long for insertion, shewing the exact positions of the different French corps. Next follows a sort of *tirade* against the Duke of Wellington, for what General Gougaud seems to deem his *over-caution* in not moving his army on the receipt of the first dispatch from the Prussians, on the evening of the 15th at seven o'clock. 'During all the proceedings of the 15th, the Duke of Wellington had remained tranquilly in Brussels,' says the General: but in the next paragraph he observes that it was only between 'seven and eight o'clock in the evening that the Duke received a dispatch from Blucher, informing him that hostilities had commenced, and that a strong reconnoissance had sabred some of his advanced posts.' It is well known that the Prussian courier, who arrived in Brussels on the evening of the 15th, did not bring to the British General a positive message from Blucher, stating that the mass of the French army were advancing on Charleroi: in fact, it was only supposed by the Marshal that the attack on that city was a feint to cover other designs. So far from our blaming the Duke for his apparent inactivity, he deserves the praise of all military men for his caution in not advancing on an uncertain rumour; and none but the most captious can find fault with the commander who, when he received the second dispatch from his ally at midnight, ordered his troops immediately under arms, and led them to the bloodiest field that was ever fought.

—— "*totas*
Implicuere inter se acies, legitque virum vir:
Tum vero et gemitus morientum, et sanguine in alto
Armaque, corporaque, et permisti cæde virorum
Semianimes volvuntur equi: pugna aspera surgit."
Æn. xi. 631.

We have not mentioned that the second road, by which General Ziethen's corps retreated, passes through Gilly and Fleurus, and near Ligny joins the road from Namur to Quatre Bras: but this it is also necessary for our readers to know, in order to comprehend what follows.

On the morning of the 16th, the first movement of Bonaparte was to send General Kellerman with his cuirassiers from Charleroi to reinforce Ney, in order to occupy Quatre Bras, if practicable; and this reinforcement made Ney's division amount to upwards of 46,000 men, with 116 pieces of cannon. Thus this position, if held by Ney, would enable him to throw a force against the right flank of the Prussians; who, on the retreat of Ziethen from Fleurus, had concentrated, with the exception of Bulow's corps. Here, too, we suspect the author to have a little overstept the bounds of correct calculation, in assigning to this army of Blucher, without the corps of Bulow, the amount of 90,000 combatants, while he makes Bonaparte's attacking force only 58,280. The Prussians were drawn up with their left on Sombref, the centre at Ligny, their right on St. Amand, and the rear on Brie; the front covered by a deep ravine, with Quatre Bras and the road leading to it in the rear. Thus, says the General, 'their right was completely exposed:' but in this assertion he is mistaken: for Marshal Ney had not even at that period occupied Quatre Bras, and was then busy in repelling the Duke of Wellington, who saw the importance of Quatre Bras as forcibly as his adversary.

Ligny fell into the hands of the French, a column of 20,000 of whom under General D'Erlong joined them in the afternoon; and the Prussians retreated on Wavres. This movement of Count D'Erlong to assist the French army is stated to have occasioned extreme surprise in Bonaparte and his Generals; who thought at first that it was a Prussian corps which was turning their right flank, but soon discovered the mistake. We are well inclined to believe that Bonaparte *very soon discovered it,* as he had ordered D'Erlong's corps up to his assistance. In this part of General Gourgaud's performance, he is at variance again with all official accounts: the Prussian force appears to have been 80,000; and, on the junction of D'Erlong, the French had, at least, the same number of men. The battle of Ligny was also fought with great disadvantage on the side of the Prussians, whose troops were exposed beyond measure; and it cost them not fewer than 20,000 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners: while their opponents, according to the best accounts, lost only 10,000: but General Gourgaud makes the French loss only 7 or 8000, and that of the Prussians 25,000 men.

Very little is here said about the battle of Quatre Bras: but the whole blame of its result is laid on Marshal Ney. Indeed, it seems almost inconceivable that upwards of 40,000 chosen French troops could not eject 4000 Belgians; and that, when the Prince of Orange joined Prince Bernard on the morning of the 16th, their united divisions being not more than 9000 men, still no serious attempt was made to dislodge them, till just before the Brunswick corps and General Picton's division from Brussels arrived; and then the French force had been diminished to 22,000 by the removal of Count D'Erlong's corps.

As soon as the battle became general, the forces on either side were about equal: but at length, by the repeated reinforcements which arrived from Brussels, the Duke of Wellington retained possession of Quatre Bras, from which place Ney's army retired with a diminution, according to General Gourgaud, of 4000 men; while he asserts that the loss of the Anglo-Belgic army was twice that number: whereas, by the Duke of Wellington's dispatch and official returns, unwittingly given in the Appendix, it did not amount to 3000. We cannot account for the General's reference to this Appendix as a verification of his statement, when it so unceremoniously contradicts him to his face.

Though many of the succeeding pages have the running title of LIGNY, they contain only a string of *ifs*, about the probabilities of success if Marshal Ney had acted otherwise than he did, with recapitulations of some other errors.

> " *Your if is the only peace-maker; much virtue in if.*"

It appears, indeed, that in this instance the said *if* has exerted its conciliatory offices in the fighting minds of Bonaparte and his aide-de-camp, with considerable effect.

After having stated that several of the French commanders had lost their former spirit, General Gourgaud adds, 'The question with them now was, who should least compromise himself.' Now this, we think, is not fair; because Marshal Ney, who is named in this sentence, did his utmost when he really came to action at Quatre Bras, and served his master but too faithfully. General Vandamme is also brought into this sweeping censure, and is accused of arriving at Charleroi four hours later than he should: whereas the writer, who seems on many occasions to forget himself in his eagerness to shew that victory ought to have hovered over the plumes of France, has before told us explicitly in the 45th page that the cause of Vandamme's division not arriving in time, before that city, was owing to there being 'no high road from his camp to Charleroi, and his columns got into confusion among the cross paths;' and again in two pages afterward he says, 'Vandamme might, perhaps, have acted with more vigour, but he was far from having any idea of treachery.'

Quitting this mass of inconsistent statements, we come to the main object of the book, '*the Battle of Waterloo*,' which occupies more than 42 pages out of the 166 of which the body of the volume is composed. Though the subject has been discussed in every possible way, it yet affords much interest when placed before us in the light in which Bonaparte views it, and this publication may be said to echo his sentiments. We shall not, however, spend much time on the actual details of that famous day; reserving a part of our article to combat the chapter which follows it, intitled '*Observations on the Battle of Waterloo*, &c.;' and we shall therefore not insert detached paragraphs from the account of the action, which would only break the thread of the narrative, and which it will be much better for our readers to peruse for themselves, but merely specify any passages that differ essentially from the received opinions. The affair of cavalry at Genappe on the 17th is too trifling in its nature to deserve comment.

At the very commencement of this military sketch of the action, we have to object to an attempt which General Gourgaud makes to establish a vastly preponderating force in favour of the Anglo-Belgic army; which he states to have amounted to 85,000 men, while Bonaparte's force was only 67,000. It is, however, a well-known fact, which is detailed in Baron Muffling's account of the campaign, that 18,000 men of the Duke's army were at Halle, ten miles from Waterloo, guarding the approaches to Brussels on the left; and that the army of the Duke of Wellington did not exceed 60,000 serviceable troops. If, therefore, we increase the French army to 80,000, their *true* numbers, and deduct from that force the 20,000 who were employed as a corps of observation on the right to watch the approach of Blucher's army, we shall find that the *battle of Waterloo* was fought by equal numbers on both sides: but that the French had the advantage in discipline, and in soldiers accustomed to fire; the Duke's troops being partly composed of Belgians and Hanoverians recently raised, which General Gourgaud acknowleges in the 89th page.

The General states that, 'at break of day, the Emperor, whilst at breakfast, observed, "We have eighty chances out of a hundred in our favour." At that moment Marshal Ney, who had come to inspect the line, presented himself. "*No doubt, Sire,*" said the Marshal, "*if Wellington had been simple enough to remain there; but I am come to inform you, that they are retreating, and that if you are not speedy in attacking them they will escape us.*"' The above information of Marshal Ney, and the speech of Bonaparte, we could not pass over. The statement forms a prominent feature of the virulent attack on the deceased Marshal, and speaks volumes; it prepares us for what follows. After the English had been repulsed from La Haie Sainte, Ney, carried away by the ardour of his men, rushed forwards and gained the heights; the troops and officers shouted victory: but 'the Emperor did not share in this exultation: he observed to Marshal Soult, "*This is a premature movement, which may be attended by fatal consequences.*" Soult expressed himself with considerable warmth respecting Ney, and said, "*He is compromising us, as he did at Jena!!!*"'—After this, the General adds, 'about six o'clock we found that the Prussians (under Bulow) had engaged their whole force; they ceased to act on the offensive, and their fire became stationary. Half an hour after, they began to fall back, and our troops advanced;' and shortly before he asserts (p. 99.) that the whole of Bulow's corps were formed on the field of battle by five o'clock. Now the Prussian official account of the action, and surely the Prussians would not wish to diminish their share of the glory of Waterloo, states that the van of Bulow's corps only reached the scene of action at *half-past four;* and that it was not until *half-past seven* o'clock that they were able to bring the whole corps of Bulow into a decisive combat with the French reserve under Count Lobau.—The passages which follow in the General's work are inexplicable: they are unfortunately too long for us to transcribe them, but they roundly assert that the French cavalry, at the time when the Prussians fell back, had penetrated into many of the English squares of infantry, taken three standards, and destroyed a great number of batteries, the guns of which fell into their hands.

'Consternation and stupor prevailed throughout the enemy's line: the fugitives had already reached Brussels: to retreat in good order was impossible; and their whole army seemed threatened with destruction. During the last half hour the situation of the French army had completely changed: the enemy was not threatening us on any point: we were masters of a part of his field of battle, and in an offensive position on his centre. We had gained the advantage, not only over the Anglo-Belgic army, of 85,000 men, but likewise over Bulow's corps of 30,000 Prussians. Still no account had been received of Grouchy. Thus between 65 and 68,000 French troops had beaten 115,000 English, Belgians, Prussians, &c.'

A short extract from the Duke of Wellington's dispatch, descriptive of the *same period* of the action, must be contrasted with this hyperbolical narration.

"The enemy repeatedly charged our infantry with his cavalry, but these attacks were *uniformly* unsuccessful, and they afforded opportunities to our cavalry to charge, in one of which Lord E. Somerset's brigade, consisting of the life-guards, royal horse-guards, and first dragoon-guards, highly distinguished themselves, as did that of Major-Gen. Sir W. Ponsonby, having taken many prisoners and an eagle."

After this supposed French *victory*, the battle soon closes; and, by some fatality, the fickle goddess on a sudden flies over to the English and Belgic camp. Then follow many ideas of what *might* have been done, and what *ought* to have been done, but not one acknowlegement that the Anglo-Belgic army had fairly conquered.

In this chapter is the note to which we have before alluded, and which states that Bonaparte, seeing the desperate situation of his affairs, was resolutely bent on perishing with his chosen warriors. 'The Emperor appeared *determined not to survive* that fatal day: *he wished to die* with his grenadiers, and was on the point of entering the square, when Marshal Soult, who was near him, said "*Sire, the enemy is fortunate enough already*," and at the same time pulled the Emperor's horse into the road to Charleroi.'

The whole account of the battle concludes with Bonaparte's opinion respecting the causes of his losing it, which is given in three separate reasons; namely, Marshal Grouchy being uncertain how to act with respect to the Prussians; secondly, the same Marshal having misunderstood some and not receiving other orders; and, thirdly, Marshal Ney's ill-timed attack with his cavalry: the author forgetting that, in the passage which we have opposed to the extract from the Duke of Wellington's dispatch, he had asserted this attack to be successful, and to have gained the victory.

The Duke of Treviso also comes in for his share of misfortune. He was ill, and consequently could not advance to the frontier; and therefore the Guard, on whom Bonaparte chiefly depended, was without a commander, though it had the Emperor himself constantly with it, and six of his best Generals commanded its different legions.

Marshal Ney's conduct closes the chapter. That officer is again accused of 'frequent aberrations of mind;' and it is said, 'to have employed Marshal Ney, or at least to have entrusted him with so important a command, is one of the faults with which the Emperor reproaches himself.'

The chapter of *Observations* contains a great portion of matter which we must regard as useless, respecting what *ought* to have been done by the Duke of Wellington. He *ought not*, according to this author, to have fought the battle of Waterloo. 'It was not probable,' he says, 'that the Duke of Wellington, having the forest of Soignies and Brussels in his rear, would give battle.' In this part of his work, General Gourgaud seems to be quite at a loss for argument, and gives way to every impression which his mind receives: for it must appear to all military men a matter beyond doubt that it was precisely because the Duke had that forest and the city of Brussels in his rear, that he did hazard a general action with his small army, without using the cold caution of waiting for his allies, and retiring from post to post till the Russians and Austrians had entered France. If the reader will take the trouble of referring to our lxxxist volume, p. 99., he will find that the hero of Waterloo has been known to express his notions on this circumstance very decidedly; and in no part of his military career has he shewn his strategical and tactical knowlege and talents in a more shining light, than in the dispositions made by him to occupy that admirable position on which the allied troops fought the battle. — We must, however, give the present author the credit of having managed his details of the probabilities of success and *vice versâ* extremely well: but to dwell on this part would take us beyond our limits, because, without making copious transcriptions, we could not enable our readers to follow his reasonings.

The manœuvres of Bonaparte, his having collected such a large disposable force from the wrecks of the French army, his rapid marches, (so well hidden from the allies,) and the precision with which he accomplished his designs, are all worthy of much notice: they enabled him to attack the allies in detail, and in the first instance to beat the Prussians; and, had it not been for the firmness displayed by the Anglo-Belgic army in the moment of trial, the issue of this short campaign might have been very different. — Though we cannot agree with the writer in his assertions that the French troops evinced their superiority over all the soldiers of Europe, yet we can, without forcing our national feelings, or wounding the just pride which the glory of that memorable day has instilled into our minds, give place to his concluding remark in this chapter: viz. 'It may be truly said that if, in these great disasters, the French army lost all, it at least preserved its honour.'

Chapter VIII. comments on the results of the battle, the flight, losses, and subsequent operations. The author owns that the army of Bonaparte, in these dreadful actions, lost 36,940 men: but he makes the loss of the allies 58,006; which is too much by 8,006, while the French amount is too little by 13,060, which will reduce the totals on either side to equal numbers.

The entire loss of the British, Hanoverians, and Dutch, is mingled in this statement with the actions of the 16th and 17th. From official sources, we know that on the 18th it consisted of only 10,580 English and Hanoverians, to which may be added 2,000 Belgians; while Bonaparte's loss on that day, according to the statement of General Gourgaud, was upwards of 20,000: but the purposely complex manner, in which he has given these details, makes it appear as if the allies had suffered doubly, instead of the French.

Chapter X. is occupied by a description of the military resources which were left to France after the action, and details of the manner in which their army rallied at Laon; with the disposable forces of the empire at that period, and the projected modes of carrying on a defensive campaign in front of Paris and Lyons. These resources, it appears, were still immense; and, had not a change of opinion taken place in Paris, and in fact throughout France, it is contended that Bonaparte might still have been able to have thrown considerable obstacles in the way of the advancing and invading armies of Europe: — but, in the next section, we are informed that, on the arrival of Napoleon in Paris, and while he was agitating in his military council the proper course of addressing the convoked chambers, he received intelligence that the Chamber of Deputies had declared itself independent of his power, and in a moment afterward that the Chamber of Peers had followed its example. There remained only one of three courses for the conquered leader to adopt; to put himself at the head of the troops in Paris, and suspend the sittings of the legislative bodies by an armed force; or to flatter them, and, by allowing their assumed power to be legal, to avert the storm for a time; or, lastly, to abdicate the crown, in favour of his son. His reasons for chusing the third course are then stated, and, if correctly given, shew that he acted very wisely: but, circumstanced as he was at the time, we believe that choice had a very small share in the conclusion.

The last chapter is devoted to explain the advance of the Allies on Paris; which, as General Gourgaud attempts to shew, was against all the theory of war, and ought not to have taken place: since, by their turning all the fortresses, and not knowing how the remnant of the French army would act, they left their rear exposed. This is a point which has been so frequently discussed, that it is useless to enlarge on it at present: but those readers, who are disposed to peruse the General's observations on the question, will find some remarks which place it in a new point of view.

A valuable Appendix concludes the performance, and contains documents on the events recorded in its pages, drawn from the official papers of the French, English, Prussian, and Belgic commanders; of which, the Prussian official account of the battle of Waterloo (by the celebrated Gen. Gneisenau) is very interesting: with the English, we are already well acquainted. It also contains the final addresses of Bonaparte to his soldiers, his act of abdication, the convention of Paris, a certificate to the author concerning his voluntary act of going on board Captain Maitland's ship, and the protest of Napoleon after he had been declared a prisoner.—A tolerable map of the country, in which the operations of the campaign of 1815 were performed, accompanies the book, and is an useful illustration of it; though a great portion of this map might have been left out, and a good plan of the battle of Waterloo been given instead. A few typographical errors occur in the Appendix, which seems to have been hastily compiled after the work was prepared for the press; for, in the different allusions to it in the text, the author has not informed us which distinct article he wishes his readers to consult.

On the whole, this singular publication merits some praise. It will form a good book of reference for the future historian; who, having official and undoubted accounts to balance against it, will not be misled by the false glare which it attempts to cast over the mischances of the French army; and who will not forget that, being the performance of an acknowleged partizan, it must be received with a caution that will effectually prevent its pages from being quoted as proofs against the testimony which unbiassed judgment gives in favour of the conquerors of Waterloo.

After a minute perusal of this volume, we cannot alter our original opinion respecting the conjecture that it was the cause of the author's sudden removal out of Great Britain. Though its obvious tendency is to depreciate the glory of Wellington and his brave companions, the writer's arguments are so feeble as scarcely to require the trouble of serious confutation; and we must therefore suppose, and hope, that the Government had more important reasons for the harsh measures which they have adopted with reference to him.

Art. VII. *A View of the Agricultural, Commercial, and Financial Interests of Ceylon.* With an Appendix; containing some of the principal Laws and Usages of the Candians; Port and Custom-house Regulations; Tables of Exports and Imports, Public Revenue and Expenditure, &c. &c. By Anthony Bertolacci, Esq. late Comptroller-General of Customs, and acting Auditor-General of Civil Accounts in that Colony. 8vo. pp. 577. 18s. Boards. Black and Co.

Publications on the subject of Ceylon have hitherto given us in general the narratives of travellers: but the present is the record of a person employed in an official capacity, and deriving his information from official documents. It is a statistical report of that 'beautiful country;' beginning with an account of its currency and exchange; exhibiting, in the next place, its commercial and agricultural interests; and treating, finally, of the public revenue and expenditure. Mr. Bertolacci is a native of Corsica, and held, under our government, an employment in that island when it was occupied by us in the early part of the French revolution. On our withdrawing from Corsica, he accompanied his patron, the Honourable Frederick North, first to England and afterward to Ceylon; where he resided during the long term of sixteen years, occupying different situations in the civil establishment of the colony. He observes:

'Much has been said already of the inhabitants and their manners, — the cinnamon, the pearl-fishery, and the hunting of elephants, — which form the distinguishing features of the histories or accounts of Ceylon which have hitherto been published. Knox has given a lively description of that part of the island, and its natives, which was under the dominion of the King of Candy. * Percival and Cordiner have called the public attention, in giving a narrative of the territories and inhabitants subject to the British government. Percival had the advantage in point of novelty, and probably in style of diction. The latter, though often too diffuse on subjects not much deserving the labour bestowed on them, is superior in point of accuracy and information. From the two, however, a pretty correct general idea may be formed of this very interesting island; except in what relates to its commerce, and to the sources from which the public revenue is derived. Cordiner says little upon these subjects

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'* Laws and manners are so slowly altered in the East, that it is likely the portraits given by Knox will still be applicable to the Candians of the present time. Some extracts from that book, or a republication of it, may, perhaps, be a desideratum, after our recent possession of that country.'

jects: Percival is not ample; and, unfortunately, the statements given in his eighteenth chapter are very inaccurate.

'But those subjects are of the greatest importance both to the country and to government; and it is to them that my researches have been particularly directed.'

The population of Ceylon has of late been greatly on the increase, in consequence of the general introduction of vaccination. The number of natives now subject to Great Britain is fully a million: but, notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, much misery prevails on account of the indolence and inefficiency of the people, as well as of the want of that capital which would employ labourers either in agriculture or manufactures. The revenue of the government is from 200,000l. to 300,000l. sterling; the expenditure, from 300,000l. to 400,000l.; forming thus, like others of our foreign possessions, a considerable drain on the parent-state. Mr. B. is evidently inclined to over-rate the political importance of the island; a disposition, however, which should be viewed by us with indulgence, connected as it is with a partiality for England. Besides, he does not fall into the vulgar error of supposing that our possessions in the east are likely to become a vast market for British manufactures: Ceylon, like the main land of India, has but a small population of Europeans; and the habits of the natives are not of a nature to create a demand for our merchandise: but he considers the territory of this colony as well adapted to the cultivation of rice, rain scarcely ever falling in the higher part of the island, and other quarters being well watered by streams. Cotton, coffee, pepper, arrack, and cocoa-nuts, may all be rendered considerable articles of export; and the settlement may, in process of time, defray its own expences, if it does not leave a surplus revenue in favour of the mother-country.

Mr. B. states with great fairness the good and the bad parts of the national character of the Ceylonese, which as yet is far from amiable; their transactions with the Portuguese and Dutch, as well as with ourselves, having all been tinctured with a share of ferocity and dissimulation. That such have been the acts of government, and not of the people, we willingly allow: but no small degree of cunning prevails even among the latter; and the following anecdote may be taken as a specimen both of their address, and of that diffuseness which forms our chief objection to Mr. B.'s style:

'An English gentleman, holding a high public situation in the colony, had been conducted in his palanquin to an evening party; and after remaining there for some time, the bearers became anxious to return home. It was, however, not late, and their master had no manner of wish to retire from the pleasant society he was in. The first step they took to effect their purpose, was, to bring the palanquin in front of the door, full in their master's view, and then retire. He saw it, and took it in good part, as a mark of attention in his bearers: in the mean time, the sight of the palanquin being connected with the recollection that he was to return home, made him reflect that the time was approaching for retiring from the party. Shortly after, some of the bearers went to seat themselves apparently in a negligent manner, by the side of the palanquin. This began to produce in the mind of the master, who observed it, a kind of uneasiness, and caused a doubt to arise whether he should, or not, remain much longer. Now the bearers watched the motions of every person in the party, and his in particular: whenever he moved from his chair, or passed from one part of the room to another, the bearers would start up, as if they thought he was coming out; and then, appearing to have discovered their mistake, would again sit down. This manœuvre put their master into a state of perfect uneasiness; he could no longer speak, or attend to the conversation that surrounded him: the doubt whether he should go or stay had made him quite uncomfortable, and he took no pleasure in the society which had before appeared to him so agreeable. But the bearers, observing that even this had not the desired effect of bringing him away, lighted up the lamps of the palanquin; and one of them taking up a hand-lantern, began to pace in front of it, so that his master could not help observing it; and this actually threw him into a state of greater uneasiness; yet he felt too much reluctance to quit his friends to be entirely moved away. But, at last, all the bearers stood up, and arranged themselves, each at their post, by the sides of the poles of the palanquin; while the one with the lantern, pacing up and down, gave a full view of the whole apparatus. Who could resist it? It acted like an electric shock. The master, in an instant, found himself in his palanquin, without being aware how he got into it. The bearers took it up, gave a loud shout, and ran away with it in triumph. — The fact was related to the author by the gentleman on whom this trick was practised.'

This work is valuable chiefly as a book of reference, the introduction being the only part that can amuse the general reader: it has more of a comprehensive nature than the rest of the volume, and treats of the climate, national character, laws, population, &c. of Ceylon. We find here likewise some curious observations on the antient prosperity and present decay of the part of the coast opposite to the island of Manar, and contiguous to the mainland of India. It is in this quarter that we meet with the remains of a stupendous work called the Giant's Tank; a basin of which the circumference has evidently exceeded sixteen miles, and which, if repaired, would be capable of irrigating the surrounding country so as to make it produce a vast quantity of rice. This artificial lake was supplied with water by canals from the Aripo river; and the masonry of the embankment of a large reservoir formed for this purpose is also a matter of curious inquiry, when considered in connection with the present ignorance and inefficiency of the Ceylonese. The antient importance of this part of Ceylon is to be explained by the backward state of navigation. To make a circuit of the island was in those days the work of many months, and contiguity to the continent was an advantage of primary importance. This opinion is confirmed by the general tradition of the country; and it would otherwise be very difficult to account for the preference shewn to a territory in itself barren and uninviting.

A still more surprizing monument of antient industry is that which is constructed around the lake of Candeley, distant about sixteen miles from Trincomalé: the embankments consist in several places of a wall of huge stones, each from twelve to fourteen feet long; and they are placed with such skill as to form a parapet of great strength. In one spot, a building 150 feet broad at the base, and 30 feet broad at the summit, forms a junction between two hills, and keeps in the water of the lake; which is let out for the purpose of irrigation by arches, so constructed as to be on a level with the lowest part of the bed of the lake.

The first Europeans who visited Ceylon were the Portuguese: but at that time the island was, as at present, remarkable only for some valuable products, its pearl-fisheries, and its elephants; the activity of its navigation, at least in the northern district, was gone.

The concluding portion of the volume consists of a long appendix, the most interesting part of which relates to the laws and usages of the Candians. Other documents, such as tabular statements of goods exported coast-wise, with calculations of freight on exports and imports, are of too minute a nature to be printed at length, and should have been compressed into the form of short general statements. We close our notice by extracting a few remarks on a well known writer on statistics and police; who, in a work reported by us three years ago, (M. R. vol. lxxviii. p. 337.) spoke with great confidence of the eventual wealth of Ceylon.

'It may, perhaps, be expected that the author of this work should either confirm, or contradict, the statements given respecting Ceylon, in Dr. Colquhoun's "Treatise of the Wealth, Power, and Resources of the British Empire." With regard to population, he is happy to find his estimate nearly to agree with the tables added to that treatise. The value of the imports and exports has been rated much too high, in fixing that of the former at one million, and of the latter at one million and a half, of pounds sterling.'—

'In the estimate of tonnage belonging to the colony, Dr. C.'s tables are not very far from correct. It is there rated at about ten thousand tons; — eight thousand may, perhaps, be nearer the mark. No regular account has hitherto been kept of the tonnage. In this work, some tables have been given in approximation to the value of annual freight paid in the real imports and exports.

'*Paddy.* — More writers than one have made the mistake of considering paddy as an inferior kind of rice. It is nothing but the rice in the husk; and it is, indeed, surprising that such an error should not have been long ago corrected.

'*Tea.* — We should have been happy to find the expectation realized respecting the growth of this valuable plant in the forests of Ceylon; but no good ground has hitherto been found for such report.

'*Pepper.* — The author has seen no pepper exported from Ceylon prepared with chunam, or with the black coat taken off. The common pepper is all exported black; and the author conceives that any preparation with chunam would quite injure and spoil that valuable spice.'

A new and perspicuous coloured map of Ceylon, by Capt. Schneider, engineer, is prefixed to this volume.

ART. VIII. *A Selection of Irish Melodies*, with Symphonies and Accompaniments by Sir John Stevenson, Mus. Doc. and Characteristic Words by Thomas Moore, Esq. Nos. VI. and VII. Folio. 15s. each. Power.

As we have already noticed the first five numbers of this remarkable and popular work, (see Rev. Vol. lxxi. p. 113., and lxxiv. p. 183.) we shall make no fresh apology to our readers for again deviating from our usual track of criticism. We may be justified, indeed, by considering the present publication as a revival of the antient union between the poet and the musician; and we may regard Mr. Moore and Sir John Stevenson as combined into one Irish Orpheus, producing equal wonders, and bearing about them the like attraction, musical and poetical.

In truth, a great degree of talent is exhibited both by the vocal and the instrumental Hibernian now before us; and, although the subjects of the former are still older than the airs of the latter, the one has contrived to give the effect of novelty to the everlasting feelings of love and liberty, and the

other

other to add a variety of harmony to melodies, which the most devoted son of Erin must allow to be somewhat monotonous. — To begin with Mr. Moore, we have to observe his very extraordinary copiousness of versification within the magical circle, in which his muse seems most delighted and most able to display her enchantments. It is now, we believe, a period of some twenty years, since Mr. Moore first took down the lyres of Anacreon and of Catullus from the pegs on which they had slumbered, after the wits "of either Charles's days" had new-strung them with the loosest and often the most discordant wires. Far more harmonious than the most musical of these his predecessors, and less loose than their most delicate performers, he has revived the *classical amatory* in this country with a truly Anacreontic spirit. Not that we are to look, in his earlier productions, for that Grecian simplicity, to which a few and a very few modern writers of elegant trifles have attained: but, in his later works, where the language in its flight from finery has not run into the arms of Wordsworthian childishness, we think that Mr. Moore has exhibited almost the best model of correct and touching expression which our age, in any kind of composition, can pretend to possess. Would that we could extend this praise to the sentiments, to all the sentiments, of the later portion of his poetry! His juvenile indiscretions we must wish to bury in silence: but of the full-grown offences of this nature we must say something; though, as we do not intend to preach a sermon on the subject at present, it shall be brief. As, then, in the collection of poems intitled Lalla Rookh, we must lament that the exquisitely elegant and virtuous tale of *Paradise and the Peri* should have a particle of its purity contaminated by the neighbourhood of some passages in the *Veiled Prophet*, so we regret, in this interesting and national selection of melodies, to see any thing like an admixture of coarse or dangerous effusions. These are scanty indeed in number, compared with the innocent, the delightful, the patriotic portions of the work; and having thus entered our just but painful protest against any the least abuse of those high talents with which this author is intrusted, we thus leave a word with the wise, and for the present dismiss the subject. We turn with a freer spirit to an estimate of Mr. Moore's lyrical powers, as contrasted with those of one or two of his contemporaries; for it is only with a few writers that it would be fair to class this eminent poet.

Inferior to Campbell in the energy, the compression, the full and co-instantaneous flash and report of the lyric efforts of that great genius, Mr. Moore is equally superior to him in variety, in playfulness, and in an easy access to and a prolonged command over the passions of the soul. In language, too, he is more uniformly simple and proper, although perhaps never rising to the occasional happy audacities of his rival.

We find it much more difficult to compare Mr. Moore with Lord Byron; for really there seems to be such an amicable sort of mutual plagiarism between them, that in the comparatively few lyric productions of Lord Byron he is often the *alter idem* of Mr. Moore; and, in return, Mr. Moore has not unfrequently in his latest compositions poached on the manor of his Lordship. *Poached*, on second thoughts, may appear too strong a word; for we believe that, in most of these cases, the game originally strayed out of Mr. Moore's paddock; and, by the laws of fair and gentlemanly sporting, it may, we suppose, be pursued till it is bagged, alive or dead, by the original proprietor. — The points of similarity between these writers are to be found in their extreme amatoriness of disposition; in their delight to associate love with melancholy; and (as more specific distinctions) in that new sort of thrill and shudder which they contrive to throw about feelings apparently exhausted, in their poetry. They have each a powerful simplicity of their own, and are each disposed to borrow an infantine quality of the kind from Mr. Wordsworth. Their language, in the plainest forms of speech, often comes most musically, most poetically, home to the heart; and they both occasionally damp and destroy all the natural feeling which they have just excited, by some far-fetched orientalism, or *brand-new* simile or allusion, with which it is impossible that any part of an English mind, except the imagination, can sympathize. To add also to this injudicious display of unnecessary learning, (if it *must* so be intitled !) they often, and more especially Mr. Moore, let off their similes, like crackers, at the conclusion of some little poem; which the gun-powder taste of the writer seems to consider as incomplete without its appropriate *bang*, or regular fire-work *finale*.

It is, however, truly surprizing that, after five numbers of Irish Melodies, all about "Love and Glory," the poet should still be able to vary his illustrations of these hackneyed themes, in any way whatever. Although, in one respect, he is the poet *chordâ qui semper oberrat câdem*, in another, — that is, in a kind of *variety in uniformity*, — he is equal to any writer of antient or modern lyrical celebrity. The

"*Quo desiderio veteres revocamus amores,*" &c.

of Catullus, and the

—— βαρβιτος δε χορδαις
Ἐρωτα μουνον ἠχεῖ —

of Anacreon, are in him repeated to full satisfaction: but, we think, scarcely ever to satiety. Still we are not quite sure of this; and we should recommend an attempt or two, at least, of a different kind, in the succeeding numbers (if succeeding numbers there are to be) of the Irish Melodies.

The first of the two parts now before us (the sixth of the work) affords as favourable a specimen of poetry and music as any of its predecessors, and more favourable than some of them. The first song, '*Come o'er the sea*,' is not in a pleasing sort of metre: but in this, as in other instances, it must not be forgotten that the labour of the poet has been in some degree fettered by the necessity of adapting his words to a particular air. The opening of the second stanza,

'Is not the sea
Made for the free,
Land for courts and chains alone?
Here we are slaves,
But on the waves
Love and liberty's all our own!'

is very spirited, notwithstanding the false concord in the last line. It is, however, one example among many of the truth of an objection which we shall allege in the sequel.

'*Has sorrow thy young days shaded*' possesses nothing to distinguish it from many of Mr. Moore's other productions. The similes in the second and third stanzas are incongruous, and rather dazzle than please; a fault of which this is far from being a solitary instance: but the simplicity of the last verse redeems it, and the concluding lines have much pathos:

'If thus the unkind world wither
Each feeling that once was dear:—
Come, child of misfortune, come hither,
I'll weep with thee tear for tear.'

'*No; not more welcome*,' is another instance of metre fettered by the music; for which, by the way, we have on a former occasion observed there is no sort of necessity; and surely the line, ''Twas whisper'd balm—'twas sunshine spoken,' has something of *botheration* which would be exposed to censure in any but an Irish melody.

'*When first I met thee warm and young*' is a beautiful poem, though perhaps a little too serious for the air to which it is adapted: but of this more anon.

This is followed by a song, to the old tune of Paddy Whack, in praise of Wellington. In any other hands than those of Mr. Moore, it would have been difficult to avoid vulgarity in adapting such a subject to such an air: but he has done it with great spirit. The genius of Erin addresses the hero, and, after a stanza of praise and exultation, concludes with these lines:

‘ And still the last crown of thy toils is remaining,
The grandest, the purest, e'en thou hast yet known;
Tho' proud was thy task, other nations unchaining,
Far prouder to heal the deep wounds of thy own.
At the foot of that throne, for whose weal thou hast stood,
Go plead for the land that first cradled thy fame—
And bright o'er the flood
Of her tears and her blood
Let the rainbow of Hope be her WELLINGTON's name!'

‘ *The time I've lost in wooing*' is not good enough to justify our losing any time in examining or quoting it: but the air is very pretty. It is succeeded by a spirited specimen, both as to poetry and music; ‘*Oh! where's the slave so lowly,*' &c. We quote the second stanza.

‘ Less dear the laurel *growing*,
Alive, untouch'd and *blowing*,
Than that whose braid
Is pluck'd to shade
The brows with Victory *glowing!*
We tread the land that bore us,
Our green flag glitters o'er us,
The friends we've tried
Are by our side,
And the foe we hate before us!
Farewell, Erin! farewell all,
Who live to weep our fall.'

The piece which, in our judgment, is one of the best in the numbers now before us, and (as far as we recollect) in the whole work, occurs at p. 100. of No. VI.

‘ I saw from the beach, when the morning was shining,
A bark o'er the waters move gloriously on;
I came, when the sun o'er that beach was declining,—
The bark was still there, but the waters were gone!

‘ Ah! such is the fate of our life's early promise,
So passing the spring-tide of joy we have known;
Each wave that we danc'd on at morning ebbs from us,
And leaves us at eve on the bleak shore alone.

‘ Ne'er tell me of glories, serenely adorning
The close of our day, the calm eve of our night;—
Give me back, give me back the wild freshness of Morning,
Her clouds and her tears are worth Evening's best light.

‘ Oh who would not welcome that moment’s returning,
When passion first wak’d a new life thro’ his frame,
And his soul, like the wood, that grows precious in burning,
Gave out all its sweets to love’s exquisite flame!’

The words are a beautiful expression of a beautiful thought, and, as far as we know, an *original* one. The music to which they are adapted is equally good; and the whole together, when sung by a fine tenor voice (as we have often heard it), possesses as much spirit, pathos, and interest as any song with which we are acquainted. The accompaniment, however, seems to require a degree of management: at least, we have always observed that, in the hands of the most tasteful performers, it receives some: — but of this we shall speak hereafter.

The next song is of a very different character, a drinking song to the tune of “Bob and Joan;” — the air reminding us of Justice Woodcock, and a hundred other worthies of former times, not quite so old as Prometheus and Bacchus, but much more amusing, with whom “Bob and Joan” are here oddly associated.

As this number was intended to close the work, it would, in course, be expected that the last piece in it should be a favourable specimen. We think that our readers will not be disappointed in any anticipations which they may have formed of its excellence:

‘ Dear Harp of my Country! in darkness I found thee,
The cold chain of Silence had hung o’er thee long,
When proudly, my own Island Harp! I unbound thee,
And gave all thy chords to light, freedom, and song!
The warm lay of love and the light note of gladness
Have waken’d thy fondest, thy liveliest thrill;
But so oft hast thou echoed the deep sigh of sadness,
That e’en in thy mirth it will *steal* from thee *still*.

‘ Dear Harp of my Country! farewell to thy numbers,
This sweet wreath of song is the last we shall twine;
Go, — sleep, with the sunshine of Fame on thy slumbers,
Till touch’d by some hand less unworthy than mine.
If the pulse of the patriot, soldier, or lover,
Have throbb’d at our lay, ’tis thy glory alone;
I was but as the wind, passing heedlessly over,
And all the wild sweetness I wak’d was thy own!’

Its mixture of patriotism, tenderness, and modesty, makes this one of the most successful specimens in the whole collection.

Notwithstanding this melancholy and apparently sincere farewell, No. 6. has been followed by a No. 7.: in a preface to which Mr. Moore accounts for its appearance by the general call for a continuation of the work, and by the contributions that he has received of old and beautiful airs, which he could not feel himself at liberty to suppress.

We must therefore proceed to the examination of this *posthumous* production, which is not in general possessed of less merit than its predecessor: though we cannot highly commend the piece with which the number opens. Its style of melancholy corresponds with that of the poem which closed No. VI.: but we observe several expressions in it which Mr. Moore's own severer judgment and nice musical ear must, we think, be ready to reject. For example:—such rhymes as *waken* and *taken*, and *broken* and *spoken*, all occurring in one short stanza, are surely not the examples of *harmony* which a correct lyrical poet should present to his discordant countrymen, in an age fast relapsing into barbarism. Again, in point of *language*, will the author defend an aukwardness like the following?

> ' Alas, the lark's gay morning measure,
> As ill would suit the *swan's decline.*'

' The swan's *decline?*' The decline and fall of the swan. *Not* thus

> —— " *ubi fata vocant, udis abjectus in herbis,*
> *Ad vada Mæandri concinit albus olor.*"

' My *gentle* Harp,' as this poem is appropriately denominated, concludes with the species of *cracker* before mentioned:

> ' Like Memnon's broken image, sounding
> 'Mid desolation tuneful still.'

Artis est celare artem was formerly the measure of excellence in all kinds of composition: yet not only to display that art, but also to leave a final impression of it on the mind of the reader, seems to be the object in these ill-introduced similes.

The ensuing song is, in our opinion, so much happier that we shall quote it entire, and make no other general remark on it than just to observe that it gives an air of originality to " images, which find a mirror in every mind, and sentiments to which every bosom returns an echo."

> ' As slow our ship her foamy track
> Against the wind was cleaving,
> Her trembling pennant still look'd back
> To that dear isle 'twas leaving.
> So loth we part from all we love,
> From all the links that bind us;
> So turn our hearts, where'er we rove,
> To those we've left behind us.
>
> ' When round the bowl of vanished years
> We talk with joyous seeming,

And smiles that might as well be tears,
So faint, so sad their beaming;
While mem'ry brings us back again
Each early tie that twin'd us;
Oh sweet's the cup that circles then
To those we've left behind us.

'And when in other climes we meet
Some isle, or vale enchanting,
Where all looks flow'ry, wild, and sweet,
And nought but love is wanting;
We think how great had been our bliss,
If Heav'n had but assigned us
To live and die in scenes like this,
With some we've left behind us!

As trav'llers oft look back at eve
When eastward darkly going,
To gaze upon that light they leave
Still faint behind them glowing, —
So, when the close of pleasure's day
To gloom hath near consigned us,
We turn to catch one fading ray,
Of joy that's left behind us.'

The best line in this little poem is, perhaps,

'And smiles that might as well be tears:'

but we do not admire

'Oh sweet's the cup that circles then.'

'*In the morning of life*' is the title of the next of these songs; which has certainly nothing to distinguish it from sundry others of Mr. Moore's own compositions, or from that most numerous of all the classes or masses of fugitive poetry, namely, the *General Sentimental.*

'When our cup which had sparkled with pleasure so high,
Now tastes of the *other*, the dark-flowing urn.'

This allusion to the old image, of the two urns of pleasure and of pain, (whether Mr. Moore has immediately extracted it from Apuleius or from Claudian, — writers with whom he is, probably, well acquainted,) is not, we think, here introduced in very appropriate or very elegant language: but we pass on to the last stanza, to the *bang* of the poem; and here we find a fanciful and pretty illustration, though we scarcely know whether its truth would be admitted by the Horticultural Society:

'In climes full of sunshine, though splendid their dyes,
Yet faint is the odour the flowers shed about;
'Tis the clouds and the mists of our own weeping skies,
That call their full spirit of fragrancy out.
So the wild glow of passion may kindle from mirth,
But 'tis only in grief true affection appears; —

To the magic of smiles it may first owe its birth,
But the soul of its sweetness is drawn out by tears!'

'*When cold in the earth*' is one of the most pathetic pieces in the collection, and we shall copy it: but we must warn our readers against the new, indistinct, species of *cant phraseology*, which is invading all our poetry; and which the vanity of many writers and critics is disposed to consider as demanded by the novelty and superiority of our conceptions in this improved æra of patent versification. We refer to such expressions as that which occurs in the second line of the second stanza: '*the revealings!*' 'The *revelations*,' every body would confess to be nonsense; and why should any one defend '*the revealings?*' "This," as Sir Hugh Evans long ago said, "*is affectations*." The mystifications of Wordsworth and Co. have largely contributed to introduce this disfigurement and debasement of our native tongue. The good old, plain, determinate phraseology of our ancestors will not serve any longer for such fine gentlemen as we are; and we must have '*revealings*,' and the whole tribe of participles turned into nouns of our own, to convey the refined sentiments, to clothe the sublime imaginations, and to support the weighty and profound understandings, of the sages and bards of the nineteenth century. — In the third stanza of this little piece, we must give a more serious caution to the reader. Let him not be tempted by any sophistical use of the word '*falsehood*' to overlook its plain meaning in this passage; and let him cease to be interested for an imaginary being, who, while he solicits forgiveness for his '*falsehood*,' yet attempts to impress on us the belief of his everlasting constancy! — The simile comes in with its *pop* at the end, just as usual. With these drawbacks, the song is a very pleasing trifle.

' When cold in the earth lies the friend thou hast loved,
Be his faults and his follies forgot by thee then;
Or, if from their slumber the veil be removed,
Weep o'er them in silence and close it again.
And oh! if 'tis pain to remember how far
From the pathways of light he was tempted to roam,
Be it bliss to remember that thou wert the star
That arose on his darkness, and guided him home.

' From thee and thy innocent beauty first came
The revealings that taught him true love to adore, —
To feel the bright presence, and turn him with shame
From the idols he darkly had knelt to before. —
O'er the waves of a life, long benighted and wild,
Thou cam'st like a soft golden calm o'er the sea;
And if happiness purely and glowingly smil'd
On his ev'ning horizon, the light was from thee.

‘ And tho’ sometimes the shades of past folly would rise,
And tho’ falsehood again would allure him to stray,
He but turn’d to the glory that dwelt in those eyes,
And the folly, the falsehood soon vanish’d away.
As the priests of the Sun, when their altar grew dim,
At the day-beam alone could its lustre repair,
So, if virtue a moment grew languid in him,
He but flew to that smile, and rekindled it there!’

‘ *Thou cam’st like a soft golden calm o’er the sea,*’

appears to us very beautifully expressed.

The next song, ‘ *Remember thee!*’ which, like several of the others, has a political cast, does not demand any particular notice; except an observation that the phrases in the line

‘ Thy chains, *as they torture thy blood* as it runs,’

approach to a style of writing which we would term the *bombast of indignation;* and that the regular *evening-gun* goes off in the concluding simile, where it is said that the hearts of the sons of Erin,

——‘ like the young of the desart-bird’s nest,
Drink love in each life-drop that flows from thy breast.’

Scilicet, the breast of Hibernia.

As to the *indignation* above mentioned, we can allow for a little exaggerated feeling of this nature in an Irishman, sincerely devoted to his country, and acutely sensible of her numerous wrongs.

——“ *Arma quidèm* ultra
Littora Juvernæ promovimus,”

as the satirist expresses it; — that is, we have governed Ireland by force of arms, and with a sort of *ultra* dominion.

‘ *Wreathe the bowl with flowers of soul*’ is an elegant little Bacchanalian song, without any thing grossly joyous or offensively convivial. We have not room to extract it: but we have no doubt that it will become a favourite in certain circles, and contribute to give images to the mirth of the festive through many succeeding generations of classical topers.

‘ *Whene’er I see those smiling eyes*’ is in a choicer strain of excellence; and we beg to transcribe it, without any draw-back of censure:

‘ Whene’er I see those smiling eyes,
All fill’d with hope, and joy, and light,
As if no cloud could ever rise,
To dim a heav’n so purely bright —
I sigh to think how soon that brow
In grief may lose its every ray,
And that light heart, so joyous now,
Almost forget it once was gay.

'For Time will come with all his blights,
The ruin'd hope — the friend unkind —
And Love, who leaves, where'er he lights,
A chill'd or burning heart behind!
And youth, that like pure snow appears,
Ere sullied by the dark'ning rain,
When once 'tis touch'd by sorrow's tears,
Will never shine so bright again.'

The subject also of this pleasing little address has a freedom from that warmth and pointedness of *love-making*, which is rather redundant in the generality of these melodies; — and, we are sorry to believe, is one cause of their popularity.

'*If thou'lt be mine*,' we have no doubt, will have many admirers: but it is somewhat too fairy-like and fantastical for our dim eyes to follow all its Robin-good-fellow vagaries through our spectacles.

'*The stars shall look like worlds of love*.' This poem does not strike us as very original; — and '*Hearts bathed in eternal rills*' are far beyond us.

'*To ladies' eyes a round, boy*,' is in our humble judgment one of the worst and least refined compositions, into which the author has ever been betrayed. The first line is sufficient, perhaps, to condemn it: but, as we are bound to justify (however reluctantly) the reproof already conveyed, we *must* extract the following unwelcome passage:

'Some looks there are, so holy,
They seem but giv'n, they seem but giv'n,
As splendid beacons, solely,
To light to Heav'n, to light to Heav'n.
While some — Oh! ne'er believe them —
With tempting ray, with tempting ray,
Would lead us (God forgive them!)
The other way, the other way.
But fill the cup,' &c.

and this is to be sung *virginibus puerisque!* — We would not willingly be cynical: but, as professed guardians of taste, we feel its connection with morals to be too close for us to suffer such a passage to escape our strong censure. We cannot, moreover, advise the author to *repeat* his *repetition* experiments. Such lines as 'We can't refuse, we can't refuse,' &c. &c. are not worthy of any place in songs of Mr. Moore's composition. 'So here they go! so here they go!' Let us hope that these words are ominous of the future dismissal of all such follies from the Irish Melodies.

'*Forget not the field*' is a spirited and manly little odto the memory of the brave. We shall conclude our ample quotations with this extract; — and we have indeed nothing laudatory to say of the two remaining songs.

> ' Forget not the field where they perish'd,
> The truest, the last of the brave,
> All gone — and the bright hope we cherish'd
> Gone with them, and quench'd in their grave!
>
> ' Oh! could we from death but recover
> Those hearts, as they bounded before,
> In the face of high heav'n to fight over
> That combat for freedom once more; —
>
> ' Could the chain for an instant be riven,
> Which tyranny flung round us then,
> Oh! 'tis not in man nor in heaven
> To let tyranny bind it again.
>
> ' But 'tis past — and tho' blazon'd in story
> The name of our victor may be,
> Accurst is the march of that glory
> Which treads o'er the hearts of the free.
>
> ' Far dearer the grave or the prison
> Illum'd by one patriot name,
> Than the trophies of all who have risen
> On Liberty's ruins to fame.'

' *They may rail at this life*' is but a poor second, or twenty-second, edition of former convivial canticles of Mr. Moore.

> ' They may talk as they will of their Edens above,
> But this earth is the planet for you, love, and me.'

In every club at the west and perhaps at the east end of the town, to say nothing of our Universities, this sort of stuff has been echoed for the last twenty years.

We must now quit Mr. Moore, on whose portion of this work we have deemed it necessary to bestow so much time, and add a few remarks on the musical part of it. In our review of the former numbers, we have given some general opinions on this subject, which are mostly applicable also to those that are now before us. It was long since remarked by Dr. Burney, however, in the Essay on Musical Criticism prefixed to the third volume of his History of Music, that none but professors can pretend to the right of close and rigid criticism of music; and, as in that description we are not to be included, it is far from our wish to go beyond such observations, as may originate in a taste that has the same pretensions to an opinion on a musical as on a poetical subject.

With regard to the airs themselves, thus put forth under the name of Irish Melodies, we confess that we have very strong doubts whether the revival of them in so copious a shape has had or ever will have a good effect on the public taste.* We are apt to forget that it is the desirable operation of time on subjects of taste and criticism, that it separates the good from the bad and the excellent from the moderate. The best airs in this collection, like the best airs of Scotch music, never have been lost; and though the clothing which they have now received from the muse of Moore, and the harmony of Stevenson, may add something considerable to their popularity, it may fairly be said that they never would have been lost: while those of inferior merit might as well have been left in the obscurity to which the discernment of "times gone by" had justly consigned them. It will, at first sight, be conceived that this feeling would lead us to censure only the admission of the inferior specimens into the collection: but, in truth, it goes farther; it forms an objection against the collection altogether; and for this plain reason that, in making a general national repository, all sorts of tastes ought to be consulted and all sorts of style preserved. We think, therefore, that the compilers of this work, having once undertaken it, could not have done otherwise than as they have done, in admitting into it a large and much diversified variety of airs; and, having so begun it, we cannot deny that they ought to continue their task as long as any additional airs, truly national and antient, can be furnished. It is, however, to be feared that the present age will not be so successful as time has been in distinguishing the merits of these compositions. Much that is faulty in point of general taste will meet with admirers: more especially as it now presents itself combined with poetry of great merit, and under the sanction of a name of high professional reputation; and, as taste is, after all, very fluctuating and uncertain, a style may grow up that is bad in itself, or an impediment may be raised against its gradual improvement and perfection.

It appears to us that, if any object required more than another the steady attention of the compilers, they were bound to preserve a strict *nationality;* and in some respects we think that this has not been sufficiently regarded. Although the bulk of the work is undoubtedly Irish, we certainly find airs in the collection to which the title of the Scotch must be admitted, on every principle of judgment that is allowable in such a case.[*] In a former article, we pointed out some instances of this fact; and a very striking one occurs in No. VII., in which the old air of 'Lochaber' is included. It is true that an apology on this head is made in a note; but we do not consider it as satisfactory. In other cases, it seems absurd to affix any nationality to mere common forms of music, unconnected with any peculiarities either of the style or the instruments of a particular nation, and which might probably be found in nearly the same shape all over the world. It would have been useful if each air had been accompanied with a short statement of the grounds on which its claim to nationality was admitted, and we strongly recommend the devotion of a few pages in some future number to this purpose.

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* See Dr. Burney's notion of national airs in the second volume of his History, p. 220. His observations on the aukward difficulties, to which persons are subject who attempt to clothe them with harmony, must give a very favourable opinion of the general success of Sir John Stevenson.

Throughout the work, we observe something like what painters call *want of keeping*. Usually, the poetry is too good for the music: — sometimes, the air and the style of harmony which are allotted to it do not accord well; — and the symphonies and accompaniments, being often in a highly chromatic style, do not suit with the airs, nor seem naturally to belong to them. For the former of these faults, we may instance, in No. VI., '*No, not more welcome*,' and '*Fill the bumper;*' and in No. VII., '*Forget not the field.*' The second is observable in several of the airs in which accompaniments in the Italian style are introduced, which is seldom suitable to these airs: in particular, we have noticed the fine air '*I saw from the beach*,' where the moving accompaniment of the left hand to '*I came when the sun o'er that beach*' gives a stiffness and measured character to the passage, which ought to be left entirely free; and the close accompaniment to the *ad libitum* part in the word 'declining' only tends to embarrass the voice. We cannot help remarking, also, that this is an air which is far too good to admit of being harmonized. The same may be said of the fine air '*Savournah Deelish.*' (No. VI. p. 95.) It is an opinion which we have elsewhere hazarded, that very few airs, originally composed or practised as single songs, can be harmonized so as to give an agreeable effect to them; and we fancy that we have observed that the taste for this kind of composition, which had grown up a few years ago, is now on the decline. Some instances occur in the present collection in which the result is favourable, especially in No. VI., '*Has sorrow thy young days shaded;*' which, sung as a duet in the

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[*] See Burney's History, Vol. iii. p. 72. note.

Italian style, the treble or soprano singing one verse alone, then the tenor a verse alone, and then the two joining in the third verse, is very pleasing. On the whole, however, these airs admit of a very meagre kind of harmonization.

Another idea that has struck us is the prevalence of a certain *inappropriateness* of style which it is not very easy to define: but, after having gone several times over this ground, we believe that this feeling is mainly attributable to old and confirmed associations existing in our own minds. As an instance, we will give the air, '*Dear harp of my country*,' &c. in No. VI., which is set to the tune of *Langolee*. Now, every person has this air combined in his ears with the words, '*If the coach goes at twelve, at what time goes the basket?*" &c.; and this mischievous association, — together with the recollection of Johnstone, his face, figure, and pig-tail, in singing it, — is not easily to be conquered. We will not, however, venture farther on this subject of adaptation between words and music: all the world are agreed on it to a certain point; and beyond that point it would be impossible to lay down any rule, and difficult to find any agreement.

In conclusion, we must observe that this publication, taken altogether, touching as it does so many feelings of a people habitually remarkable for their liveliness and impassioned character, will undoubtedly be considered as possessing great and general interest. Yet it is only among the Irish that the powerful nature of that interest is to be sought, and from them only that the execution of the best of these airs in their best style can be expected. In several instances, we have heard them so executed, with an effect fully justifying all the labours of the compilers. Combined as are the words and the music with patriotic feelings and national character, their influence must be widely and permanently felt; and, looking at them in this light, we feel some regret that the political topics connected with Ireland are so frequently introduced in them. We have said that we go a great way with the feelings of an Irishman on these subjects: but, as we hope that at no very distant day the causes of discontent, out of which these feelings naturally spring, will be removed, we are sorry that a record of them will be kept in a work that would be better devoted to the promotion of harmony and affection between all parts of the empire.

We have noticed several typographical errors in the letter-press, but they are so obvious that it is not worth while to particularize them; though for that very reason they exemplify the greater carelessness.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR DECEMBER, 1818.

POLITICS.

Art. 9. *An Inquiry concerning the Population of Nations:* containing a Refutation of Mr. Malthus's Essay on Population. By George Ensor, Esq. 8vo. pp. 502. 12s. Boards. Wilson. 1818.

We have repeatedly had occasion, in reporting the publications of Mr. Ensor, to do justice to his extent of erudition, and often to his soundness of principle, while we regretted the hasty and ill arranged nature of his compositions. The present work, more considerable in extent than most of those which he has given to the public, is marked in no common degree by these characteristics; almost every page exhibiting proofs of extensive reading, and as often disappointing us in the use to which the author has applied his attainments. The main object of the book is to combat the discouraging theories of Mr. Malthus; and in the performance of this important task Mr. Ensor exposes a number of mistakes in Mitford, Hume, and other historical writers, with regard to population. He complains greatly, and we believe justly, of the irregularity of most computations of the kind; our census of 1801 and that of 1811 being perhaps the only accurate returns hitherto obtained on a great scale. An attempt to enumerate the population of Ireland in 1813 was confessedly unsuccessful, and a second effort begun in the following year has yet produced no published result. A considerable difference prevails accordingly in the opinions of writers concerning the number of inhabitants in the sister-island; though it seems scarcely to be doubted that they amount to 5,000,000. The calculations made in England before the surveys just mentioned, from such *data* as the number of marriages, of hearths, or even of families, were far from accurate.

Mr. E. dissents in express terms from Mr. Malthus's leading assumption that population presses against food; arguing that we have no want of food in Great Britain, or in other parts of Europe, and that the poor suffer chiefly in consequence of the wasteful habits of the rich. He is likely to meet with more attention when he laments the extent of national loss caused by our colonies, particularly in the West Indies; a loss which bears hard on a valuable class of our population. In another part of the work, he recapitulates a variety of regulations, the effect of which is to increase the numbers of a people; such as extra taxes on bachelors, exemptions on account of children, the erection of lying-in hospitals, the discovery and distribution of economical food, &c. He then gives a less acceptable enumeration, we mean that of checks on population, such as the celibacy of priests; the encouragements in certain countries to celibacy among laymen;

the postponement of marriages advised by Mr. Malthus; and, finally, the pernicious effects of slavery on the comfort and numbers of a people. The sum of his arguments is that no free nation is distressed by a super-abundance of inhabitants; the misery of the lower orders proceeding from mis-government, and being equally great in a thinly and in a thickly peopled country. He exemplifies this statement by the melancholy picture exhibited in the present day in Egypt, in Greece, and a part of Italy; contrasting their neglected fields and abandoned cities with the cheerful activity and thick population of former ages.

In the third part, Mr. Ensor discusses at considerable length the various considerations to be taken into account in speaking of a country as populous or otherwise. First, the existing stages of society, whether pastoral, agricultural, or commercial. Next come climate, soil, mode of government, temperance, and other national habits; all circumstances of the highest importance in an estimate of population. He infers that the increase of our species should be allowed to take its free course, and that we have nothing to dread from an excess of numbers. To emigration he is friendly, provided that it is pursued on a plan of perfect freedom; leaving the expatriated persons to choose their own abode, and to turn their labour and capital to account without being pledged to a servile subjection to the mother-country. Indeed, to dependence in any shape, whether produced by the influence of the aristocracy, the power of ministers, or the pressure of the corn-laws, Mr. E. is a most resolute opponent. — A more delicate subject still, and one on which he expatiates in his concluding chapter, regards the expensive appendages of a monarchy, the amount of the civil list, the extent of our naval and military establishments, &c.; the whole of which form an unpleasant contrast to the simple yet efficient manner in which government is conducted in the United States.

Mr. E. concludes his book with a summary of the principal results of his doctrine; admitting in part the arguments of his opponents, but insisting that they have greatly over-rated their weight, and have kept wholly in the back ground those to which he is disposed to attribute the greatest share of popular distress.

We cannot close this report without again regretting that a mind so active, and in some respects so well stored, as that of Mr. E., should not be capable of mixing up with more care and deliberation the large mass of materials exhibited in this volume. He has evidently read the best authors on the subject, whether antient or modern, and discovers sufficient shrewdness in detecting the errors of his antagonists: but he has yet to learn a temperate tone in argument, and the habit of impartially comparing the two sides of a question. What are we to say of his calling a notion of one of his adversaries (p. 248.) 'a beastly opinion,' and of his apostrophizing Mr. Malthus in the next paragraph by the epithet of 'miserable philosopher'?

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 10. *The Philosophy of Elocution*, elucidated and exemplified by Readings of the Liturgy of the Church: for the Use of young Clergymen, and Students who are preparing for Holy Orders. By James Wright, of Magdalen Hall, Oxford; public and private Lecturer on the Science and Practice of Elocution. 8vo. pp. 376. 12s. Boards. Law and Whittaker. 1818.

Mr. Wright has apparently taken great pains to lay down a kind of musical theory for the due attainment of an accurate pronunciation, and a correct style of public reading; and we are far from considering that his labours have been expended without at least a partial degree of success. He has thrown some light on the mysterious subject of English orthoëpy; and his observations on the structure of sentences, and the philosophic principles of language, appear in general to be the result of diligent reflection and an intimate acquaintance with the subject. The rules laid down in the treatise on the Philosophy of Elocution, which constitutes the former part of the volume, are well illustrated by a reprint of the Liturgy of the English church; which, together with a paraphrase, is given in the remainder of the work, and accompanied by the proper accentuations for the requisite inflections, elevations, and depressions of the voice. The younger clergy, and those who are preparing for the ministry, can scarcely employ too much time or trouble on the attainment of so desirable a qualification for their professional duties as that of a correct, articulate, and graceful manner of delivering both their own sentiments and those of others: yet, we confess, we cannot but think that this end would be more easily if not more expeditiously attained by the ordinary method of habitual reading and recitation, and by observation of the best living models in these useful arts, than by a tame subservience to any prescribed set of rules or accents. If more attention were paid to this subject in our great seminaries of learning and religious education, we should sincerely rejoice: but we apprehend that, when the student for holy orders had patiently toiled through the pages before us, the system here laid down might have the effect of giving an air of pedantry and affectation to his manner, and would take from him that ease and graceful fluency of enunciation which are so essential to excellence in the art of elocution.

Art. 11. *Sermons on public Subjects and Occasions.* By Francis Skurray, B. D. Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

Sermons preached on public occasions are perhaps well adapted to advance the interests of the preacher, but to the hearers are seldom found either so interesting or so practically useful as those which are delivered on the more ordinary topics of religious instruction. Of the seven discourses of which the thin duodecimo before us consists, we are inclined to regard the first, which is a visitation-sermon, as the ablest specimen of the author's talents; though to others, possibly, we should assign the meed of practical utility. In this composition, however, though it certainly contains much that is to be commended, we still observe a triteness and a want of originality about the thoughts and style of composition, which fatigue the attention, and prevent the discourse from obtaining a very commanding influence over the feelings of the hearer. The preference given by the established church to prescribed formularies in public worship, rather than to extemporaneous effusions, is freely and ably treated: but the remarks of the author are by no means new. The doctrines of Calvin, and those of his school, on the subjects of election, reprobation, predestination, and grace, are also combated with some force of argument: but we have often seen the same discussions more ably and satisfactorily conducted. Mr. Skurray, however, appears to us to possess, among some other necessary qualifications of a good theologian, a facility of scriptural quotation, rarely attainable without a long and patient and accurate study of the inspired writers. He is manifestly what would be termed *an orthodox divine:* but we are happy to add that, in his adherence to the doctrines which he defends, and in his view of those civil and religious duties which he inculcates, neither his sentiments nor his mode of expressing them appear at variance with that charity "which vaunteth not itself" to the disparagement of others, or discordant with the benevolent character of the religion of which he is a minister.

NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

Art. 12. *An Essay on the Nature of Heat, Light, and Electricity.* By C. C. Bompass, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 200. Boards. Underwood.

According to the account which Mr. Bompass gives of himself in the preface, he is to be regarded rather as an amateur in science than an adept; and he does not profess to have made any discoveries, or even to have performed any experiments, but to speculate on the opinions and experiments of others. We do not object to this mode of employing the faculties, nor should we regard it as by any means an useless occupation, provided that it be correctly managed, and that the attention be directed into a proper channel and towards a legitimate object. In certain branches of science, we at present stand in need more of correct deductions than of new facts; and it requires, in some instances, a more philosophical turn of mind to reason well on observations than to make the observations themselves. In order, however, that this benefit may be obtained, certain requisites are indispensable; and among these we may place in the very first rank a clear conception of the subject, and a perspicuous method of expressing such conception. Now, after having perused Mr. Bompass's essay, we feel warranted in saying that he certainly has not the second, and we suspect that he is devoid of the first of these requisites. Style is certainly a totally different thing from the formation and arrangement of the ideas; and yet they are so much connected, or rather the one is so much influenced by the other, that we think it may be laid down as a general rule, which admits of few exceptions, that, if a writer cannot make himself intelligible on a subject with which we are familiar, the defect does not lie altogether with the reader.

Mr. B. divides his work into three chapters, corresponding to the topics on which he treats; and in these he discusses a variety of subjects connected respectively with heat, light, and electricity. He begins by inquiring into the evidence for the materiality of heat; a doctrine which he supports as more intelligible and as better calculated to explain the phænomena, than the one which refers them to the operation of a certain species of vibratory or oscillatory motion in the particles of matter. So far we easily follow him, and coincide in his conclusion: but with respect to what succeeds we feel more in doubt, both as to the nature of the author's opinion and as to its correctness. His object, if we rightly comprehend it, is to prove that the specific qualities of caloric, (especially that of repulsion,) as well as its radiation and other modes of repulsion, have no foundation, but may be all referred with more plausibility to certain elective attractions which heat possesses for various bodies, not essentially differing from the elective attractions of other material agents. We shall quote a paragraph in which Mr. Bompass states his ideas on this point, and we must add, in justice to ourselves, with less than his usual obscurity.

'The attraction exerted between bodies and caloric is evidently exerted between particles, and consequently is in that respect similar to chemical attraction; a resemblance to the peculiarities of which is seen in the definite combinations in ice, water, and vapour. Attraction for caloric and other chemical attractions mutually affect each other; and consequently they must have some similarity in their nature. That the difference of temperature in bodies has an effect upon their chemical attraction is a fact too well known to require arguments. The common mode of stating the different degree of solubility of substances, in hot and cold water, proves it sufficiently. But if the difference in the quantity of caloric affects chemical affinities, it is equally evident from every chemical combination that, in their turn, those affinities influence the attraction for caloric; and that they are, therefore, mutually operative. The chemical combinations, which are produced by heat, have been usually ascribed to the diminution of the attraction of cohesion, in bodies under its influence. But the same cause which would lessen the attraction between the particles of the same body, would most probably, in the same degree, lessen the attraction between the particles of different bodies. Certainly, if motion were the cause of the separation of the particles, it would equally operate to oppose their union with other particles. The small degree of heat which is sufficient to produce the combustion of metals in oxygen, is hardly sufficient materially to diminish the attraction of cohesion, when their great conducting power is considered. It is, however, unnecessary to attribute the effects to a diminution of the attraction of cohesion, if there be another cause proved by other circumstances to exist; and if the attraction for caloric be of the same nature as other chemical attractions, it is highly probable that such an attraction may be sufficient to explain the phænomena.'

All plausible atrempts at generalization are pleasing to the mind, because they appear to remove obstacles to our progress, and seem to give us farther insight into the grand operations of nature. We acknowlege that we feel disposed to the above hypothesis: but it could not be adopted without much reflection; and, although it is announced by the author with sufficient perspicuity, we are, for the most part, unable to follow him in the arguments which he adduces in its support.

Mr. Bompass's manner of considering light and electricity is analogous to that which he adopts respecting heat, as far as the nature of the reasoning which he employs and the style in which it is clothed are concerned. Light he supposes to be 'a compound etherial fluid, composed of only two simple fluids, combined in different proportions;' it is farther assumed that bodies attract both the components of light, but with different degrees of force; and on the relative forces of these attractions the chemical and colorific effects of light are conceived to depend. Electricity is, in like manner, referred to the operation of a compound etherial fluid; and from the combination of the two fluids heat and light are supposed to be produced. This last hypothesis composes one of the most important parts of the author's doctrines, and a variety of considerations are urged in its support. Like the former portion of the work, although something ingenious frequently seems to occur in the ideas, yet a degree of obscurity attaches to them, and produces a feeling of dissatisfaction and uncertainty. — On the whole, we regard this essay as the production of one who has undertaken a task which he is at present unable to accomplish: but we would advise him to turn his attention again to the subject, and to give his ideas to the public when they are more mature.

POETRY.

Art. 13. *An Elegy on the Death of Richard Reynolds,* with other Poems. 8vo. pp. 44. Arch and Co. 1818.

Mr. Reynolds's extraordinary character and worth, and Mr. Montgomery's poetical celebration of his memory, were mentioned in our lxxxiiid vol. p. 211. Another but an anonymous writer has here again deservedly eulogized it, in strains of which the following lines may serve as examples:

'He loved the Saviour's path to tread,
His precepts into practice brought,
The sick were healed, the hungry fed,
The poor and ignorant were taught.

'The weeping widow's tears were stayed,
The drooping orphan found a friend,
The stranger blessed his ready aid,
For him the prisoner's prayers ascend.

‘ The blind, the lame, his name revered ;
 A father to the suppliant poor,
To pale affliction’s sons endeared,
 His friend who knew no friend before.

‘ The streams through which his kindness flowed
 Nor country, clime, nor name confined,
At misery’s call, compassion glowed —
 ’Twas boundless as the unbounded mind !’

The other little pieces in this pamphlet evince the same Christian mind, and the same moderate inspiration from the heathen goddesses. The *Invocation to Sleep* is one of the best, though not to be compared with the epigrammatic terseness of the well-known Latin lines, *incerti auctoris :*

“ *Somne levis ! quanquam certissima mortis imago,*
 Consortem cupio te tamen esse tori.
Alma quies ! optata veni : nam sic sine vitâ
 Vivere quam suave est, sic sine morte mori.”

‘ Come, downy Sleep, thy balmy opiates ply ;
 Come bind thy fillets round this aching brow ;
Let thy soft hand repress the rising sigh,
 And bid the starting tear forget to flow.

‘ No more let memory pleasures past reveal ;
 Bid busy fancy’s airy buildings fall ;
The past, the present, future, all conceal —
 Cast thy mysterious veil around them all.

‘ Strike all my senses with thy magic wand ;
 Assuage the sorrow, which thou canst not heal ;
Bid weary nature rest in slumbers bland,
 And let my throbbing heart forbear to feel.

‘ Refreshed, renewed by thy enlivening power,
 I ask not, hope not, ever-during rest ;
But courage to support the adverse hour,
 The adverse hour by sovereign mercy blessed !’

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 14. *Vindiciæ Wykehamicæ ;* or, a Vindication of Winchester College : in a Letter to Henry Brougham, Esq. occasioned by his Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, on Charitable Abuses. By the Reverend W. L. Bowles. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co.

Art. 15. *A Letter to H. Brougham,* Esq. M.P. F.R.S. in reply to the Strictures on Winchester College, contained in his Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, M.P. From the Reverend Liscombe Clarke, A.M. Fellow of Winchester College. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Mr. Brougham’s letter to that lamented patriot, Sir Samuel Romilly, which we noticed in our last number, contained the following passage :

‘ We’ (the Committee appointed to inquire into the education of the lower orders) ‘ were severely reproved for pushing our inquiries into establishments, destined, it was said, for the education of the upper classes, while our instructions confined us to schools for the lower orders. Unfortunately, we no sooner looked into any of those institutions, than we found that this objection to our jurisdiction rested upon the very abuses, which we were investigating, and not upon the real nature of the foundation. For as often as we examined any establishment, the production of the charter or statutes proved that it was originally destined for the education of the poor. — "PAUPERES *et* INDIGENTES *scholares*," say the Statutes of Winchester College.'

Mr. B. afterward mentions 'a few things relating to this college, which may serve,' he says, 'to shew that such endowments are not less liable to perversion than more obscure charities.'

We purposely refrained from noticing the attack on this and other antient establishments, being convinced that there was sufficient (as the lawyers say) to prove the case intended to be established, and to excite an interest in the subject, without touching questionable points; and also because we had not then seen the two pamphlets which head this article. They proceed from the pens of two reverend gentlemen; both of whom were indebted for their education, and one of whom owes his present support, to the pious endowment of William of Wykeham. We shall not even now pursue the controversy through its minute details; on most of which, however, we think that the Wykehamists have made a successful defence. As to the material point, indeed, we have no hesitation in considering that the words "*pauperes et indigentes*" must be understood in a comparative sense, and as having no reference to that class of society which in our days comes properly under the designation of the *lower orders*. One of the arguments contained in Mr. Clarke's pamphlet may be extracted as conclusive on the subject.

'You affirm that "the statutes require in the most express terms that only the poor and indigent shall be admitted on the foundation." But, Sir, when you make this unqualified affirmation, and so peremptorily limit and restrict the qualifications of candidates to those of poverty and indigence, are you aware that poverty is only one among many others which are declared to be equally necessary? In order it does indeed stand first, but it does not appear to me to be so clear that it exceeds all the rest in importance. Are you aware that the same statute which enjoins that boys "*in scholares eligendi*" must be "*pauperes et indigentes*," requires also and in the succeeding words of the same sentence, that they must be "*bonis moribus et conditionibus perornati?*" that they must be "*ad studium habiles?*" that they must be "*conversatione honesti?*" that they must be "*in lecturâ, plano cantu, et antiquo Donato competenter instructi?*"

'The terms in which the second qualification is expressed are particularly strong; "*bonis moribus et conditionibus perornati*" — not merely boys of good manners and morals, for both are included in the word "*moribus*," but *bonis moribus* "PERORNATI," distinguished, pre-eminently distinguished for those qualities, and not for those only, but also "*conditionibus*," for their dispositions and habits of life, and so much I think the word fairly implies, without pushing its meaning to the utmost: it being always remembered that "*perornati*" is applied alike to "*moribus*," and "*conditionibus*." But will not an impartial person at least pause before he determines that for a supply of boys answering to such a description we are to look only to the lowest orders? That such is the interpretation which you wish to have affixed to "*pauperes et indigentes*," to the entire exclusion of even the middling classes, however poor, no one who has read your Letter and attended to its scope can entertain a moment's doubt.

'Again, candidates are required to be "*ad studium habiles, et in lecturâ, plano cantu, et antiquo Donato* competenter instructi*;" which requisites may, I think, without going into minute questions about words, be fairly understood to comprehend, and to mean, competent proficiency in the rudiments of classical learning, reading, and chanting.† And here I may ask whether the state of general education and the history of the times in which William of Wykeham lived authorize us to suppose that boys qualified for scholarships in those several particulars were to be sought only from a class of parents, who did not possess even the means of maintaining them, much less of bestowing a portion of their goods, however small it might be, on their previous education.'

Mr. Brougham was probably unapprized that the Fellows of this venerable establishment were bound by an oath to repel "SCANDALA *vel* PRÆJUDICIA *dicti collegii*:" but he could not well suppose that no one of the individuals, distinguished by character, situation, or talents, whose early connection with this institution is a natural ground of affection for it and all that belongs to it, would step forwards as its advocate and defender. We are always sorry when a good cause is supported by a bad argument, since the exposure of its weakness frequently proves materially injurious to the main question; and the conscientious promoter may, by a single failure, not only lose the credit due to him but defeat the object which he has in view. We trust, however, that this will not be the case with either Mr. Brougham or his cause: though we cannot but think that, in endeavouring to prove, as the quoted sentence evidently does, that the *lower orders* were the only objects of the charity of the pious founders of the establishments which he names, he has not merely failed, but has raised up a host of enemies, connected with those establishments, from whom he might otherwise have received support.

'* Donatus was a grammarian and commentator of antient times, whose book, written in the Latin language, was, I suppose, much in use about the time of the founder.'

'† This qualification has reference to the particular profession for which the founder intended the scholars, in general, should be educated, viz. Holy Orders, and the part which they were to take in Divine service according to the ceremonies of the Church of Rome.'

Art. 16. *Substance of a Speech on the best Means of counteracting the existing Monopoly in the supplying of Beer*; exemplifying the Evil, and tracing its Source to the System of arbitrary Licensing of Victualling Houses, peculiar to Great Britain: delivered at a Public Meeting holden at the Crown and Anchor Tavern in the Strand, January 26. 1818. By J. T. Barber Beaumont, Esq. F.A.S., one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for Middlesex and Westminster. 8vo. pp. 32. stitched. Longman and Co. 1818.

Mr. Beaumont has weakened his case by endeavouring to carry it too far. How he connects what he calls 'the existing monopoly' with the 'system of arbitrary licensing,' we do not perceive; since it is palpable from the evidence before the Police-Committee that some of the houses, which form a constituent part of that monopoly, are far from benefiting by that system; — and we are very much deceived if every brewer in the metropolis would not concur in Mr. Beaumont's opinion of the propriety of altering laws, the execution of which is liable to so much abuse. Mr. B. has attempted unfairly and unsuccessfully to raise a cry against a respectable set of traders, by charging them not only with demanding inordinate prices, but with the much more serious offence of using deleterious articles in the composition of their beer. The latter charge we trust that we may disbelieve, as far as it regards the great brewers of the metropolis; and, with respect to the former, we require more satisfactory data than Mr. B. has supplied, before we can agree in his judgment. We have not yet seen the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the subject, but it will probably furnish us with ample materials for decision.

Art. 17. *The London Guide*, and Stranger's Safeguard against the Cheats, Swindlers, and Pick-pockets that abound within the Bills of Mortality; forming a Picture of London as regards *active life*. Collected from the Verbal Communications of William Perry, and others. To which is added, an Exposition of the late Atrocities of Conspirators and Informers, and a Glossary of Cant-terms. By a Gentleman who has made the Police of the Metropolis an Object of Enquiry 22 Years. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Bumpus, &c. 1818.

Critics, like the conjurer in the Old Bailey, are often supposed to know all things; and certainly they ought to know a great deal. If, however, we should ever be disposed to confess our inefficiency, it might be on an occasion like the present; and really we do not profess, nor wish, to *be up* to all the pretty tricks recorded in this 'London Guide.' Yet we have no doubt that its information and statements have far too much truth in them; and we are inclined to recommend a perusal of it, as an amusing and useful warning to all frequenters, but more particularly to all new visitors, of our over-grown and vicious metropolis. It appears to us, nevertheless, that the writer is rather too sharp in his advice when, in reference to the *over pressing solicitations* of certain ladies in the streets at night, he says: 'Here hesitation is ruin: irresolution will destroy you: want of decision is want of sense, and will soon prove the want of pence. *Knock them down*, after having given them one notice to that effect; especially if it be late at night, or in a dark place adapted to robbery.' The experience which dictated this advice, and the reasoning which follows in justification of it, may establish its soundness: but we suspect that the person who freely adopts it will often get himself *into a scrape.*

We suppose that W. Perry, to whom we principally owe this book of pilotage through the shoals of London, is one of the people employed at a police-office, and whose qualifications cannot be doubted. In this character, too, let us hear him speak of the detection and prevention of robbery. Thus he saith, respecting the pilfering of stage-coaches and their passengers, on their arrival in the inn-yards: 'The yards are nothing like so much infested as they were twenty years ago, because of the officers, who take away the offenders "when they are wanted," *but not until then*, as it would not be worth their while. *A complete clearance might be made*, but the men not having done any thing *capital*, that is to say, *rewardable by statute*, the officers do not chuse to interrupt them, and they accordingly go on nibbling, until something great turns up, — and then justice interferes.' — This bold assertion, and avowal, ought strongly to support the objections lately so well urged against the system of allowing police-officers to share pecuniary rewards for the apprehension and conviction of offenders.

Art. 18. *An Olio* of Bibliographical and Literary Anecdotes and Memoranda, original and selected. By William Davis. A new Edition, with considerable Additions. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Davis.

We spoke in commendation of the first edition of this entertaining little breakfast-companion in our lxxvth vol. p. 110.; and, on occasion of its new and increased appearance, we may again amuse our readers by one or two specimens from it.

'Mrs. Macaulay having published what she called *Loose Thoughts*, Mr. Garrick was asked if he did not think it a strange title for a lady to choose. "By no means," replied he; "the sooner a woman gets rid of such thoughts the better."'

Did the inquirer reply: "*But whom would you advise to buy them?*"—A jest, however, is usually spoiled by a reply.

A story has often been told of the late Duke of Cumberland's ungracious reception of one of Mr. Gibbon's volumes, but it is differently related by Mr. Davis.

'The original publication of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire was in 4to.; as the volumes appeared singly, Gibbon used to take them to H.R.H. the Duke of Cumberland. Conveying the third to him one day, *elated with pride at the delightful office*, (qu.?) and imagining as he went what handsome things the Duke would say to him, what a mortification it must have been to the historian when the Duke, in his usual rough manner, exclaimed, "What, ah! another d——d' big square book, eh!"'

'*Budeus*, one of the most learned men of the 16th century, was engaged in deep study in his library, when his servant came running to him in a great fright, to tell him the house was on fire. "Go," said he, with perfect calmness, and hardly raising his eyes from his book, "and inform your mistress; 'tis her concern, you know I never interfere in domestic matters."

'THE BOOK, *an Epigram*.

' A poring wight, who being wed
Was always reading in his bed,
His wife address'd with am'rous look,
And said, "I would I were a book!"
"Why so, good dame?" the sage replied.
"Because you'd love me then," she cried.
"Why that might be," he straight rejoined,
"But 'twould depend upon the kind —
"An Almanack, for instance, dear,
"To have a new one every year." '

Art. 19. *Speech of the Marquis of Lansdowne*, in the House of Lords, June 3d, 1818, on moving for certain Information relative to the State of the Prisons in the United Kingdom. Published by the Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, and for the Reformation of Juvenile Offenders. 8vo. 6d. Arch. 1818.

We rejoiced to see the great council of the nation roused, as it were, from its lethargy, by the impressive details of Mr. Buxton, whose interesting book we recently noticed; and we think that the Society, of which he is so efficient a member, has acted wisely in publishing the temperate and eloquent speech of the Noble Marquis on introducing the subject. That most essential good will result from the investigations of the Committee to be appointed on the opening of the session, no reasonable doubt can be entertained; and we cordially hope that the Society will receive every encouragement and assistance, both personal and pecuniary, in its pious and benevolent endeavours to procure evidence and information for the promotion of the labours of that Committee. In an able preface, the Society details the success of its exertions to the present time, and its views and objects for the future.

Art. 20. *Reminiscences:* written in 1788 for the Amusement of Miss Mary and Miss Agnes B***y. By Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Sharpe. 1818.

This neat little volume presents, in a very accessible form, the entertaining and instructive political and court-recollections which Lord Orford wrote down for the gratification of his fair friends, the daughters of Mr. Berry; and which, as the present editor observes, have been 'secluded from the eye of the general reader in the retirement of five quarto volumes.' From that retirement, however, we in some measure contributed to withdraw them, by the detailed notice which we took of them in our xxviith volume, N.S. pp. 176—182.: where, in particular, the whole of the character of Queen Caroline, in Chap. VII., was extracted. Having then said so much of her Majesty, we may take the present opportunity of recording a few notices of her rival, Lady Suffolk:

'Lady Suffolk was of a just height, well made, extremely fair, with the finest light brown hair; was remarkably genteel, and always well dressed with taste and simplicity. Those were her personal charms, for her face was regular and agreeable rather than beautiful; and those charms she retained with little diminution to her death at the age of 79. Her mental qualifications were by no means shining; her eyes and countenance shewed her character, which was grave and mild. Her strict love of truth and her accurate memory were always in unison, and made her too circumstantial on trifles. She was discreet without being reserved; and having no bad qualities, and being constant to her connections, she preserved uncommon respect to the end of her life; and from the propriety and decency of her behaviour was always treated as if her virtue had never been questioned; her friends even affecting to suppose that her connection with the King had been confined to pure friendship. Unfortunately, his Majesty's passions were too indelicate to have been confined to Platonic love for a woman who was deaf* — sentiments he had expressed in a letter to the Queen, who, however jealous of Lady Suffolk, had latterly dreaded the King's contracting a new attachment to a younger rival, and had prevented Lady Suffolk from leaving the court as early as she had wished to do. "I don't know," said his Majesty, "why you will not let me part with an old deaf woman, of whom I am weary."

'Her credit had always been extremely limited by the Queen's superior influence, and by the devotion of the minister to her Majesty. Except a barony, a red riband, and a good place for her brother, Lady Suffolk could succeed but in very subordinate recommendations. Her own acquisitions were so moderate, that, besides Marble-Hill, which cost the King ten or twelve thousand pounds, her complaisance had not been too dearly purchased.

'No established mistress of a sovereign ever enjoyed less of the brilliancy of the situation than Lady Suffolk. Watched and thwarted by the Queen, disclaimed by the minister, she owed to the dignity of her own behaviour, and to the contradiction of *their* enemies, the chief respect that was paid to her, and which

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'* Lady Suffolk was early affected with deafness. Cheselden the surgeon, then in favour at court, persuaded her that he had hopes of being able to cure deafness by some operation on the drum of the ear, and offered to try the experiment on a condemned convict then in Newgate, who was deaf. If the man could be pardoned, he would try it; and if he succeeded, would practise the same cure on her Ladyship. She obtained the man's pardon, who was cousin to Cheselden, who had feigned that pretended discovery to save his relation — and no more was heard of the experiment. The man saved his ear too — but Cheselden was disgraced at court.'

but ill compensated for the slavery of her attendance, and the mortifications she endured. *She* was elegant; her lover the reverse, and most unentertaining, and void of confidence in her. His motions too were measured by etiquette and the clock. He visited her every evening at nine; but with such dull punctuality, that he frequently walked about his chamber for ten minutes with his watch in his hand, if the stated minute was not arrived.

'But from the Queen she tasted more positive vexations. Till she became Countess of Suffolk, she constantly dressed the Queen's head, who delighted in subjecting her to such servile offices, though always apologizing to *her good Howard.* Often her Majesty had more complete triumph. It happened more than once that the King, coming into the room while the Queen was dressing, has snatched off the handkerchief, and turning rudely to Mrs. Howard, has cried, 'Because you have an ugly neck yourself, you hide the Queen's.'

From the chapter relative to the Duchesses of Marlborough and Buckingham, we must also take an anecdote or two.

'The Duchess of Buckingham was as much elated by owing her birth to James II., as the Marlborough was by the favour of his daughter, Lady Dorchester*, the mother of the former, endeavoured to curb that pride, and, one should have thought, took an effectual method though one few mothers would have practised: "You need not be so vain," said the old profligate, "for you are not the King's daughter, but Colonel Graham's." Graham was a fashionable man of those days, and noted for dry humour. His legitimate daughter, the Countess of Berkshire, was extremely like to the Duchess of Buckingham: "Well! well!" said Graham, "King's are all-powerful, and one must not complain; but certainly the same man begot those two women." To discredit the wit of both parents, the Duchess never ceased labouring to restore the house of Stuart, and to mark her filial devotion to it. Frequent were her journeys to the Continent for that purpose.

'* Lady Dorchester is well known for her wit, and for saying that she wondered for what James chose his mistresses: "We are none of us handsome," said she, "and if we have wit, he has not enough to find it out." But I do not know whether it is as public, that her style was gross and shameless. Meeting the Duchess of Portsmouth and Lady Orkney, the favourite of King William, at the drawing-room of George the First, "God!" said she, "who would have thought that we three whores should have met here?" Having, after the King's abdication, married Sir David Collyer, by whom she had two sons, she said to them, "If any body should call you sons of a whore, you must bear it; for you are so; but if they call you bastards, fight till you die; for you are an honest man's sons."

'Susan Lady Bellasis, another of King James's mistresses, had wit too and no beauty. Mrs. Godfrey had neither. Grammont has recorded why she was chosen.'

She always stopped at Paris, visited the church where lay the unburied body of James, and wept over it. A poor Benedictine of the convent, observing her filial piety, took notice to her Grace that the velvet pall that covered the coffin was become thread-bare — and so it remained!'

We have not room for more quotations than one anecdote of the Duke of Cumberland, from Chap. VIII.

'The Duke in his very childhood gave a mark of his sense and firmness. He had displeased the Queen, and she sent him up to his chamber. When he appeared again, he was sullen. "William," said the Queen, "What have you been doing?" — "Reading." — "Reading what?" — "The Bible." — "And what did you read there?" — "About Jesus and Mary." — "And what about them?" — "Why, that Jesus said to Mary, Woman! what hast thou to do with *me*." '

CORRESPONDENCE.

In reply to the letter from Sir James Edward Smith, we assure him that the remark to which he alludes was not by any means intended to injure, in the slightest degree, his *Introduction to Botany;* of which we have often of late expressed our high opinion. We have no hesitation in declaring it to be a work of sterling merit, which must continue to be read and admired: but we do think that no harm could arise from retrenching the exuberance of some parts of the chapter to which he refers. In saying this, we have neither time nor inclination to enter at large into the discussion of the point at issue: but we beg to direct his attention to the last line of page 251., third edition, where he will find an expression which may be corrected.

The silence of X. induces us to regard him as a "wolf in sheep's clothing;" or if really possessing the character in which he appeared, as deficient in the true spirit and feeling which belong to it. Let him yet dispel the suspicion.

P. Y. will find in this Number an ample account of the work with which he wishes to be made acquainted.

⁂ The Appendix to this Volume of the Review will be published on the 1st of February, with the Number for January, and will contain several important articles of Foreign Literature, &c.

In the last Review, p. 254., l. 14. from bottom, after 'ardour,' insert *as*.

☞ The General Index to eighty-one Volumes of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review is ready for delivery to subscribers, (who are requested to send to Pall Mall for their copies,) in two large vols. 8vo. price 2l. 2s.; and to non-subscribers at 2l. 12s. 6d.

THE
APPENDIX
TO THE
EIGHTY-SEVENTH VOLUME
OF THE
MONTHLY REVIEW
ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mémoires*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs illustrative of the History and Anatomy of the *Mollusca*, by the Chevalier Cuvier, ordinary Counsellor of State, Perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Sciences of the Royal Institute, &c. &c. &c. With Thirty-five Copper-plates. 4to. pp. 482. Paris. 1817.

Although the epithet *Mollusca*, which has merely a reference to *softness* of texture, can scarcely be deemed sufficiently appropriate for the class of animals which it is intended to denote, yet it has been so generally adopted that any attempt to discard it might now savour of affectation or fastidiousness. The range of its signification, however, has been so variously determined by different naturalists, that the learned author of the present volume was required to define with precision the title and extent of his subject; and, accordingly, for his general exposition and arrangement of the class, he refers his readers to his work on the *Animal Kingdom*, (which is also published, and which we purpose to notice in another article,) while the principal object of the memoirs before us is to develope the complex organization of many of the species. The substance of a very considerable portion of the treatise had already appeared in the Annals of the Museum of Natural History, but the materials are now brought together in a continuous and enlarged form; and, as far as they extend, they will doubtless contribute to throw a strong and steady light on the history of an interesting department of animated nature. We say *interesting*, because the molluscous families, though neglected or despised by the thoughtless vulgar, cannot fail to invite the attention and to stimulate the observation of every physiological inquirer, and of all who delight to investigate the uses of the various productions of nature.

Independently, indeed, of the attractions which accompany the study of these singularly constituted beings, mankind have hence been enabled to derive positive advantage from some of the species, and to guard against the injurious encroachments of others. Several of the testaceous and other mollusca have, from time immemorial, contributed to the sustenance of such portions of our race as inhabit the sea-shores. From the same source, medicine has augmented its stores of palliatives and cures; while commerce and the arts have brought within their domain either the animals themselves or preparations of their spoils. As familiar illustrations of these assertions, we may state that whole beds of oysters furnish an article of food to many thousands of individuals; that, in various quarters of the world, the best lime for the purposes of building is prepared from shells; that drawing-ink is obtained from the black liquor secreted by the cuttle-fish; that the fine Tyrian dye was extracted from a shell-fish; and that nacre and pearl are prized as elegant articles of ornament. If we ascend to higher considerations, we shall find the molluscous tribes employed by nature as the instruments of forming those beds of secondary lime-stone, of which, in many districts, the habitations of man are constructed; and, as we pursue the theme, we contemplate the accumulated spoils of ages converted into the frame-work of continents.

We cannot, however, presume to dissemble that the study of the animals in question is attended with considerable obscurity and difficulty; and that, notwithstanding the many writers who have attempted to class and describe them, much still remains to be discovered, and not a few errors to be corrected. The situation and circumstances of the mollusca too often conspire to render our investigation of their structure and habits at once minute, toilsome, and precarious; for many of them reside in the deepest seas, or in remote latitudes; and, when snatched from their native element, a single instant will often suffice to alter or deform their aspect, before they can be conveniently subjected to the scrutiny of the observer. In some instances, the recurrence of similar individuals is rare; and their entire preservation is seldom practicable. In the course of a distant voyage, the naturalist can sometimes catch only a transient glimpse of a specimen, in the crevice of a rocky precipice or in the midst of storms and tempests. Should the sea, in its fury, accidentally cast a non-descript on deck, at the feet of the observer, he is still constrained to describe or paint it with great despatch, in a moment of tumult or alarm; lest its gelatinous texture should be speedily dissolved, or the muscular contraction, which always ensues, should disguise its appearance. Many individuals of the class have been but once observed: we are still ignorant to what animals the fossil-remains of others have appertained; and others, again, have been so imperfectly described, that their historians have obviously never possessed an opportunity, or have never availed themselves of it, of submitting their statements to the test of critical analysis. In fact, the creatures now under our consideration can scarcely be examined to any good purpose except during their lives, when alone they manifest the forms and uses of their organs. Hence, from a want of attention to the marked differences between the living and the dead specimen, the same individual has been often represented as belonging to distinct species. — Yet the more numerous and formidable the difficulties are by which any department of study is encompassed, the greater is the merit of him who encounters and overcomes them. Much of this merit we very cordially award to the labours of CUVIER: but, in the present as in other cases, we are compelled to notice a great portion of his diligence, ingenuity, and zeal, only in a very general manner. Our readers will be at no loss to perceive that we chiefly allude to his fine anatomical details; which impart such sterling value to most of his writings, but which we should in vain essay to communicate to others, without the help of the excellent plates by which they are accompanied. Owing to this circumstance, we shall touch on the contents of the ensuing memoirs much more lightly than the nature of the subject, and the great ability with which it is prosecuted, would otherwise demand.

1. *On the Cephalopoda, and their Anatomy.* — As the *arms*, or *feelers*, with which the individuals of this family are furnished, cannot correctly be denominated *feet*, we may be allowed to demur to the propriety of their technical title. Forming, however, as they do, a natural section, M. CUVIER is completely justified in arranging them under a distinct order; comprizing the genus *Sepia* of *Linné*, or the different species of *cuttle-fish*, *calamary*, and *quid*, which, in conformity

formity with the antient classification, are now distributed into three separate groupes.

Of the history of some of these animals, and even of their anatomy, Aristotle appears to have possessed no contemptible knowlege; and much more was not acquired for nearly two centuries. After the revival of letters, *Swammerdam* was the first who ventured to communicate some additional details: but, if he described with great accuracy the external parts and the tongue, and with somewhat less correctness the viscera and nerves, he wholly erred in his account of the organs of circulation. Monro, in his Physiology of Fishes, not only exposed the mistakes of *Swammerdam*, but contributed several facts of importance; although he also hazarded some very questionable statements. Still more recently, *Scarpa*, in his Treatise on the Organs of Hearing and Smell, conveyed to us much valuable information on the ear and nerves of the cuttle-fish; and *Tilesius* has lately furnished two long memoirs, in which he dilates, though not always with accuracy, on the bone and on the nervous system of the same species.

Assuming, as the type of the family, the *Sepia octopus*, Lin., the present author first descants on its general appearance and habits, and then submits it to regular dissection; discussing, as he proceeds, and occasionally at considerable length, the external parts, the inside of the bag, the muscular system, the large venous cavities and peritoneum, the organs of circulation and of respiration, those of digestion, the ink-bag, the generative organs, and the nervous system; and, finally, he confronts with their prototypes, and with each other, the *cuttle-fish* (*Sepia officinalis*, Lin.) and *calamary* (*S. loligo*, Lin.), noticing their respective differences of structure. The general habits of the tribe are thus somewhat briefly recorded:

> 'All the cephalopoda feed on shell-fish, lobsters, crabs, &c. infolding them in their long arms as in the coils of a serpent, and, by compressing them with their suckers, depriving them of all motion; and thus they frequently subdue individuals larger than themselves. The hard and often spiny mail of the crustacea resists not their sharp cutting beak; nor do they manifest much alarm at the vigorous and well-toothed nippers of these animals. The quid, in particular, is held in abhorrence on our coasts of the Channel, on account of the destruction which it occasions, in summer, of the most dainty of the crustacea; for scarcely can the fishermen then procure lobsters, or shrimps, in the rocky districts; and almost every thing that escapes from the quid remains more or less mutilated.
>
> 'This cephalopode is even dangerous to swimmers; for it has been ascertained that it twists round their legs, and, by preventing

them from moving, occasions death: but we are inclined to treat as fabulous all that has been said of polypi sufficiently large to devour men; and still more those extravagant recitals, revived by authors of the middle ages, which represent polypi as large as islands or mountains.

'A remarkable particularity of the cephalopoda is that ink with which they darken the surrounding water, on the least appearance of danger, or even when they only wish to conceal themselves from the eyes of those animals which they design for their prey. This liquor, the secreting organs of which I shall describe, is of the same nature with the genuine Indian ink, and may be substituted for it. *Swammerdam* had already suspected that the latter was the ink of the cuttle-fish; and, in fact, it is universally known that it is now prepared in Italy, and differs in no respect from that of China except in being a little inferior in blackness. M. *Bosc* assures us that he has heard it asserted, that the Chinese manufacture their preparation with the ink of *Sepia rugosa;* and I have ascertained, by experiment, that the ink of the quid and of the calamary come nearer to it than that of the cuttle-fish. It is expressed from the cellular texture which contains it in the state of a thickish jelly, but it is diluted in water, and in a single instant tinges a very considerable portion of it. When put into a vessel, it dries in the course of a few hours, and comes off in scales, like those of Indian ink. I have employed it in designing the plates which accompany this memoir. It might easily furnish a small branch of traffic, especially on the shores where these animals are very abundant; and, as good Indian ink is rather dear, and its use would be extended if the price were reduced, some profit might be expected from this sort of manufacture.

'The ova have singular forms, and differ according to the species. For the most part, they are united in clusters by a common coating; which in the calamary is gelatinous and transparent, but in the cuttle-fish is opake and horny; and in this last-mentioned instance the grains, round and separated, so much resemble grapes, that the fishermen have almost every where given them the name of sea-grapes.'

In his composition of the passage which we have just quoted, we are somewhat surprized that M. Cuvier should have wholly overlooked several other curious topics to which his ingenious countryman, *Denys Montfort,* has adverted. The latter naturalist, it must be allowed, too often gives loose reins to his fancy: but many of the facts, which he has recorded in his General and Particular History of the *Mollusca,* rest on evidence that cannot be controverted. In the anatomical details, however, the present writer is far more minute and satisfactory than his entertaining precursor. From these we learn that the close approximation of the liver and ink-bladder, in the quid, had misled Dr. Monro into the belief that the black liquid was identical with the bile; a supposition which is at once overthrown, when we consider that in the cuttle-fish the ink-bladder is very differently situated. Of the great number of *Sepia octopus* which the author dissected, scarcely one in five proved to be a male; whence he infers that the excess of females must be considerable.

The complicated and beautiful structure of the eyes of the cephalopoda approaches, in some respects, to that of the same organs in the vertebral classes of animals, but in others widely differs from it; and the precise points of resemblance and difference are here distinctly stated, and illustrated by figures. In the sepiæ, no appropriate organ of smell has been detected; and yet these animals appear to be sensible of the influence of odours, since they are attracted by those of various substances.

A prominent article in the comparative description of *S. officinalis* is the detached calcareous substance, commonly called *cuttle-fish bone*, the position and texture of which are well delineated: but nothing is said of the uses to which it has been rendered subservient.

2. *On the Clio Borealis.* — This memoir opens with a little historical disquisition on the confusion which has ensued from a conjecture of *Linné*, who fancied that the *Clio* of *Martens* might be referred to that of Browne. M. Cuvier's own description of the genuine *Clio Borealis* is taken from a preserved specimen presented to him by M. *Vahl*, of Copenhagen, and perhaps ought, therefore, to be adopted with some reserve. It is but fair, however, to mention that the author himself 'had the satisfaction to make on it all the anatomical observations requisite to its accurate delineation;' an assertion which, in a subsequent paragraph, is thus modified: — 'this description, without being complete, will suffice, as I have said above, to determine the station of this animal with more certainty than heretofore.' The result is that this *Clio* (*whales' meat*) is neither a cephalopode nor a gasteropode: but may it not form an intermediate link? Its external appearance is certainly very remote from that of the *sepiæ*.

3. *Concerning the Animal of the Hyalea, a new Genus of naked Mollusca, intermediate between Hyalea and Clio, and the Institution of a new Order in the Class of Mollusca.* — After having recited the characters of *Hyalea* and *Pneumoderma*, for specimens of both of which the author is indebted to *Péron*, he proceeds thus:

> 'Whoever will compare the *hyalea* and the *pneumo-derma* with the *clio* will perceive that all the three have, in common with the *mollusca*, a brain, a heart, and a liver; that their hermaphroditism particularly assimilates them to most of the gasteropoda;

that they cannot, however, be arranged under that order, since they are destitute of feet, and do not crawl on the belly nor in any other manner; that neither can they be regarded as cephalopodes, since they have but one heart, and no arms; and that nobody will be induced to rank them among the *acephala*. I am disposed, therefore, to think that they should be erected into a new family, which I shall designate *ptéropoda*, or *finned mollusca*, *mollusca pinnata*.

'The characteristic definition of this order will be, *body free, swimming, head distinct, no other members than fins.*

'The three genera, which I comprize under this order, will be thus particularly characterized:

'CLIO. Body naked; two fins on the sides of the neck. The gills on the surface of the fins.

'PNEUMO-DERMA. Body naked; two fins on the sides of the neck; two tufts of tentacula at the mouth. The gills on the surface of the posterior part of the body.

'HYALEA. Body invested with a shell, cleft at the sides; two fins on the sides of the mouth. The gills in the bottom of the folds of the skin, opposite to the slits of the shell.'

4. *On the Genus Tritonia, with the Description and Anatomy of a new Species,* viz. *Tritonia Hombergii.*

5. *On the Genus Doris.*

These two memoirs contain a distinct extrication of the confusion which first the elder naturalists, and subsequently *Linné* and his continuators, had introduced into the genus *Doris;* and a not less explicit account of *Tritonia Hombergii*, so denominated in honour of M. *Homberg*, a young gentleman of Hâvre, who has been lately snatched from the zealous prosecution of natural science, when on the eve of publishing his researches on marine zoology. The only external organs of sensation observable in this new species, as in most of the gasteropodes, are those of sight and touch; the former consisting of two black points, presumed from analogy to be eyes, and the latter diffused over the integuments of the body, and especially over the delicate and divided surface of the arms and gills. From a subsequent passage, we learn that this species is synonymous with the *Limace de mer palmifere* of *Dicquemare*. Among the rare species of *Doris*, particularized in the fifth memoir, several are non-descripts, as *solea*, *lacera*, *scabra*, *pustulosa*, *maculosa*, *atro-marginata*, &c. The three first mentioned, and *Dicquemare's Limace à plante*, are moreover remarkable for their dimensions.

6. *On the Scyllæa, the Eolidia, and the Glaucus, with Additions to the Memoir on Tritonia.*—The vague and contradictory manner in which *Seba*, *Linné*, *Osbeck*, *Forskhal*, *Gmelin*, and even *Bosc*, have mentioned the Scyllæa, induced

the present author to give a new description and figure of the animal from nature; indicating, at the same time, the source of former errors, and unfolding the anatomy of the genuine species: thus arresting the progress of confusion before it should become irremediable.

With respect to the beautiful *Glaucus*, it is somewhat remarkable that *Linné* had entirely overlooked it; although *Breynius*, a physician of Dantzic, had described it in the Philosophical Transactions so far back as 1705. *Pierre Dupont* delineated the same animal in 1762; and *Lamartinière*, one of the companions of the unfortunate *Lapeyrouse*, forwarded a specimen to the editor of the *Journal de Physique* in 1787. '*Gmelin* had converted *Dupont*'s animal into *Doris radiata*, although it possessed not one of the characters assigned by *Gmelin* himself to the genus *doris*; and, to complete the confusion, he afterward asks, p. 3149., whether *Lamartinière*'s animal does not in fact belong to the genus *Clio*, without perceiving that *Lamartinière*'s and *Dupont*'s animal is one and the same.' This species was also observed by the elder Forster, by *Bosc*, and by *Bory de Saint-Vincent.* M. CUVIER, who never saw it in the living state, has published a drawing of it, communicated by the late M. *Homberg*; and he has noted the characters which distinguish it from *Tritonia.* The *Eolidiæ*, which have been detached from *Doris* and *Limax*, are principally characterized by the imbricated structure of their gills.

7. *On the Genus Tethys, and its Anatomy.* — For much of the discriminative perspicuity with which the Chevalier has been enabled to enrich his pages, he acknowleges his obligations to the extensive and valuable collections to which he has had easy access; and to the friendly attentions of *Homberg, Fleuriau, Bosc, Péron, Maugé, Savigny, Geoffroy, Humboldt,* and *Duméril.*

'Yet,' says he, 'notwithstanding the zeal and friendship of these learned and courageous naturalists, and in spite of the researches and the queries which I had instituted relative to the various shores of the Mediterranean, I still was not in possession of a single *tethys*; and this genus, as important as it is obscure, would have yet remained very imperfectly known, had it not been for the voyage which M. *de Laroche*, a young naturalist, and the son of a respectable physician, has just made to the Balearic islands, by order of the Minister of the Interior, with the astronomers appointed to prolong the meridian: for the purpose of collecting such observations connected with physics and natural history as these islands, little frequented by men of science, might be found to supply. M. *de Laroche*, at my request, searched with particular diligence for specimens of the *tethys*; and he succeeded in collecting several, with a great many other mollusca or zoophytes and fishes, which he has deposited in the Museum, and the most interesting of which he purposes to describe.

> 'It is thus that I have been enabled to describe and dissect this animal, of which the rarity seems to be occasioned by its principally inhabiting the bottom of the deep, and never rising to the surface, nor approaching the shore, except in storms. Such, at least, appears to be the amount of the testimony of all who have observed it.'

The progressive changes, which *Linné* introduced into his definition of this animal, clearly prove how little he knew of its real structure, which is now so completely portrayed.

8. *On the Phyllidia, and the Pleuro-branchus, two new Genera of molluscous Animals, of the Order Gasteropoda, and allied to the Patellæ and Oscabrions; the one naked, and the other furnished with a concealed Shell.* — The external characters of a *phyllidia*, taken from a single ill-preserved specimen, were published in the 51st Number of the *Bulletin des Sciences:* but three species of this family are now distinctly analyzed. The description of the *pleuro-branchus*, so named from having gills only on one side, is in some respects less perfect; having been taken from an individual, the internal parts of which were softened by too much diluted spirit of wine.

9. *On the Genus Aplysia, commonly called Sea-Hare, on its Anatomy, and on some of its Species.* — The antient history of this marine animal is involved in the absurdities of superstition and fable. Among the moderns, *Bohatsch* first described with fidelity its external characters and principal viscera. M. Cuvier has entered into still more elaborate details, and has given descriptions of two additional species: but we can afford to select only a few particulars. Some of our readers may not, perhaps, be aware that, besides a whitish acrid liquor, which is rarely given out, the *aplysia* discharges another, of an intense purple-red, and in much more abundance.

> 'A large aplysia can furnish enough of this liquor to make a pailful of water become of the colour of wine. This red liquor is not contained in an appropriate sac, but is included in the very substance of the gill-cover, all around its free margin. The animal discharges it when teased, and especially when put into fresh water; and, as I could never perceive any channel destined for its egress, I presume that it transudes through the pores of the skin.
>
> 'The aplysia is not the only animal that diffuses a purple liquor; I have observed that the *murex brandaris* and also another species do the same, when placed in the same circumstances; and I entertain not a moment's doubt that this was the true purple of the antients. I suspect, therefore, that *Swammerdam*, and all those who

who after him have supposed that the purple was included in a small bag connected with the organs of generation, have been mistaken.

'I collected some quantity of this liquor of the aplysia for the purpose of submitting it to trials. In the air it assumes, on drying, a beautiful deep tint, like that of *scabiosa atro-purpurea,* and which seems to be unsusceptible of alteration by the air alone. The addition of a small quantity of nitric acid imparts to it a more purple hue, but a large quantity changes it to a dingy aurora. Potass renders it of a dirty purplish-grey; and these two re-agents produce in it many white flakes. This liquor, in fact, of which the nature is so much assimilated to that of the calamary, (the true Indian-ink,) contains its colouring matter in a mucous recipient: it has no very decided savour, nor odour; nor does it produce any injurious effects on the skin: for I have kept my fingers immersed in it, during a considerable time, without experiencing any inconvenience. The Marseilles fishermen, however, believe that it will injure the eyes, if applied to them.'—

'I have observed, in their living state, the *aplysia punctata* and the *fasciata,* which are both very common at Marseilles; and I can confidently affirm that they are two distinct species. The Provençal fishermen are at no loss to discriminate them; for they know that the *fasciata* is always black, however small it may be; and that, consequently, the *punctata,* though always smaller than the other, is not its young.

'For the rest, these two aplysiæ are very harmless animals, and undeserving of the malignant character attributed to them by the antients. They are not more nimble in the sea than our garden-snails are on land. Squatting, for the most part, under some large stone, or in some crevice of a rock, or in some depression of the sand, they seldom issue forth, except in quest of food, which consists of small shell-fish, as sluggish as themselves. Destitute of defensive armour, and wanting even that robust shell which protects most of the marine gasteropoda, they have every thing to dread, and can scarcely attack any thing. Their red liquor screens them, by darkening the water around them, nearly in the manner of the ink of the cuttle-fish. With respect to their acrid humour, I doubt whether it is sufficiently abundant to be of much service to them; especially in the water, in which, at the moment of its diffusion, it will naturally be blended, and deprived of its effect.

'They are, doubtless, prolific, for they are very numerous at certain seasons; and for some days in spring the sea swarms with the fasciated species, which begins to pullulate in the month of March. The spotted sort appears much more early; and I have had hundreds of its young in January: but at all times, and even in the depth of winter, some adult individuals may be found. The fishermen have remarked that they require only a month or two to attain their full growth.

'These creatures give out a slight virous odour, which may have been the cause of ascribing to them all the poisonous properties already mentioned. At Marseilles, no fisherman seems to be acquainted with these properties. The moderns do not eat the aplysia, on account of their disgusting figure and smell: but they do not entertain that superstitious fear of them, which was manifested by the antients. I could not even hear any mention of the depilatory quality, which *Linné* attributes to his first species.'

10. *On the Akera, or Gasteropodes without apparent Tentacula.* — Under this general title, borrowed from *Müller*, are ranged the *Bullæ* and *Bulleæ* of *Lamarck*; and the *Bulla carnosa*, which is destitute of a shell. The discriminations and properties of the several species are laid down with the author's accustomed sagacity and acuteness.

11. *On the Slug* (*Linax*, Lin.), *and the Snail* (*Helix*, Lin.) — We have been not a little edified with this long and learned parallel between the corresponding organs of two creatures so familiar to our observation, but with the conformation and instincts of which we are only beginning to become acquainted. The circumstances of their amours form a singular chapter in their natural history; and they are related *sans façon* by the grave Chevalier, whose phraseology we cannot, on this occasion, very decently *do into English.* In the concluding section of the memoir, which treats of the external senses of these *mollusca*, he adverts to the reproduction of a large portion of the head, after amputation; and he recommends a careful anatomical inspection of the parts removed, that we may know with more precision what internal organs are actually replaced by a new growth.

12. *On the Dolabella, Testacella, and a new molluscous Genus, with a concealed Shell, called Parmacella.* — Until lately, the first and second of these genera were but imperfectly known. The *dolabella*, which appears to be nearly related to *aplysia*, was observed by *Péron* to abound in the Isle of France. Both *D'Argenville* and *Favanne* have given a figure of *testacella*, under the designation of *Limace à coquille.* M. Cuvier some years ago arranged it as a distinct genus, in which he was followed by *Lamarck* and *Bosc*: but these two learned naturalists quoted only foreign species, whereas *Faure-Biguet*, an able and zealous observer, discovered the *halitoidea* in the southern provinces of France. — *Parmacella*, so called from its shield-like form, was communicated to the author by *Olivier*, and now figures for the first time in the nomenclature. It inhabits the land, and was found in Mesopotamia.

13. *On the Onchidium, a Genus of naked Mollusca, nearly allied to Limax; and on a new Species, Onchidium Peronii.* — If we compare this article with the scanty account of the *onchidium* by Dr. Buchanan, inserted in the fifth volume of the Linnéan Transactions, we can scarcely hesitate to infer that *Péron*'s species, a native of the Isle of France, deserves distinct commemoration. Its dissection reveals an extraordinary physical fact; namely, the presence of three distinct livers, with their respective systems of vessels, and differing only in size and position. It is also worthy of remark that, in this newly discovered species, an hepatic liquor performs the functions of the gastric juice. *Péron* brought from Timor, one of the Molucca islands, an individual exactly corresponding with the preceding, except that it was rather smaller; and the author received a much more minute specimen, not exceeding eight or ten lines in length, from the coast of Brittany. The *Limax nudus cinereus terrestris,* of Sloane, likewise belongs to the present genus.

14. *On the Limneus (Helix stagnalis,* Lin.) *and the Planorbis. (Helix cornea,* ejusd.) — In consequence of the latitude assigned to the Linnéan characters of *Helix,* many species were grouped under one family, which nevertheless exhibited very striking differences of form and manners; and hence the new divisions and appellations of these tribes, which have been recently instituted by *Lamarck* and others. The two species which form the subject of the present memoir, though of very common occurrence, are well worthy of the attention of the naturalist; for they constitute a sort of link between the terrestrial and the aquatic testacea, inhabiting the water in the manner of seals and cetaceous animals: the structure of their respiratory organs requiring their ascent, at short intervals, to the surface of their native element, for the purpose of inhaling the air of the atmosphere. In their hermaphrodite faculties, they agree with many of the gasteropoda: but the sexual union of the *limnei* is somewhat peculiar.

The observations of Lister and *Swammerdam,* relative to this species, will not be found to have materially anticipated the more extended and correct statements with which we are here presented.

15. *On the Ianthina and the Phasianella of M. Lamarck.* — The *Ianthina,* which also has been detached from the Linnéan *helices,* is remarkable for its beautiful purple tints, the purple liquor which it secretes, and the proboscis with which it perforates even hard bodies. It belongs to that section of Cuvierian gasteropoda which have pectinated gills, and which consequently breathe in the manner of fishes. The specimens

with which the author was furnished, through the friendly intervention of *Homberg*, *Savigny*, and *Péron*, enabled him to describe and delineate the anatomy of the animal, though we still desiderate information with regard to its modes of life. The comb-like gills of the *phasianella* likewise determine its place in the natural order; affording another, among many proofs, of the little reliance that can be placed on the form of the shell for regulating the arrangement of the animal which it contains.

16. *On the Fresh-Water Viviparous Snail* (*Cyclostoma Viviparum*, Draparn. *Helix Vivipera*, Lin.)*; on some kindred Species; and a general View of the Tribe of pectinated Gasteropoda, with an entire Shell.* — In retracing the labours of his predecessors, M. Cuvier renders ample justice to Lister's account of the viviparous snail. *Swammerdam*, he observes, unconscious of having been anticipated, exercised his talents on the same subject, and added two facts; namely, the dissemination of calcareous particles over the whole skin, and the presence of those conical and crystalline hairs with which the shell is beset at an early age: but his anatomical sketch is very superficial, and he seems even to have been ignorant of the separation of the sexes. *Spallanzani*'s assertion that the animal is a complete hermaphrodite, and capable of self-impregnation, was deduced from the experiment of taking live individuals from the belly of the mother, and confining them in an insulated state, when they nevertheless proved prolific: 'but, as the male of this species is perfectly well known, and the act of coupling has been observed, the experiments of *Spallanzani*, supposing them to have been accurate, would only prove that a single union fecundates several generations, which happens with the aphides.'

To the author's anatomical exposition of the viviparous snail, are subjoined some pertinent observations on that of the *Turbo pica*, Lin., and brief notices of the animals belonging to other *turbines*, *trochi*, &c.

17. *On the great Buccinum of our Coasts* (*Buccinum undatum*, Lin.), *and its Anatomy.* — Notwithstanding the frequency of this species on our shores, we were still unfurnished with any correct and accurate view of its organization: a want which is now very ably supplied.

18. *On the Haliotis, or Sea-Ear; on the Sigaret; on the Genus Patella, and its detachments, namely, Fissurella, Emarginula, Crepidula, Navicella, and Cabochon; and, lastly, on the Oscabrio and the Pterotrachæa.* — The more recent genera here recited have been detached from *Patella*, Lin., on account of certain mutual affinities observable among the animals,

mals, and without regard to the characters of their testaceous coverings. In none of them, except the *Sigaret*, is the distinct separation of sexes visible; and the author is much inclined to believe that these animals are hermaphrodites. In the *Sigaret*, which appears to be synonymous with *Helix haliotoidea*, Lin., the sexual organs are, on the contrary, scarcely less conspicuous than in the *Buccinum undatum:* but the real shell is quite enveloped in the outer integument, which is furnished with its own groove and canal, corresponding to the stoney and membranous syphons of the other mollusca, of the tribe of *buccinum*, *murex*, &c. This singular conformation was first indicated by M. Cuvier himself, in the *Bulletin des Sciences;* and some specimens lately imported from the Isle of France enabled him to complete his observations. *Adanson*, who frequently met with the shell in its detached state, never encountered the animal.

Notwithstanding the highly ornamental appearance of *Haliotis tuberculata*, and the abundant opportunities of examining its structure, it seems to have been nearly neglected by those who were best qualified to describe it with precision. The public are therefore not a little indebted to M. Cuvier for the pains with which he has investigated its several parts.— *Fissurella* and *Emarginula* exhibit something of the same general aspect as *Haliotis:* but the most prominent points of difference are here briefly noted. — By *Oscabrio* is designated the *Chiton*, Linn. Having access to larger specimens than those which were possessed by *Poli*, the author was induced to retrace the footsteps of that distinguished zöologist; and he has thus brought to light various particulars, which might otherwise have long remained in obscurity. — The mutilated state of such specimens of the *Pterotrachæa* as had been hitherto found, combined with the demise of *Péron*, who had promised an elucidation of its history, leaves much still undetermined with regard to its curious organization.

19. *On the Thalidia* (*Thalia*, Browne,) *and on the Biphori*, (*Salpa*, Forskahl.) — This memoir affords a fine exemplification of M. Cuvier's powers of critical disquisition; by the aid of which he has here, as in other instances, adjusted the jarring language of Browne, *Forskahl*, and *Linné*.

20. *On the Ascidia and their Anatomy.* — Having first recounted, historically, the misconceptions of some of the most eminent zoological writers, with respect to the nature and proper classification of these mollusca, M. Cuvier proceeds in the form of a connected essay to state the results of his own observations, several of which were partially published at different periods. Although the individuals of this

tribe are often apparently grouped, they are never connected by any organic ramifications: — but, though each is complete in itself, it is so liable to perpetual changes of form and aspect, that observers cannot easily describe it with any degree of precision merely from its external appearance: the internal structure, however, being stable and uniform, furnishes less equivocal criteria for the genera and species. The scalpel likewise demonstrates that the system of these apparently simple and scarcely animated creatures is more complex, than some careless naturalists have supposed. Much doubt still hangs over the supposed destination of several of the organs: but the general sketch of their fabric, which precedes the more particular remarks on the different species, cannot fail to interest the physiological student.

21. *Of the Animal of the Lingula*, (*Lingula Anatina*, Lam.) — *Seba* had perfectly well represented the two valves and the footstalk of this singular production; and *Bruguiere*, shortly before his death, had recognized the peculiarities of its structure: but *Lamarck* first framed its genus, and assigned its correct station in the system. From two specimens, M. Cuvier has now favoured us with a particular description and plate of its external and internal structure; so that there is little risk of its being again tossed from one division to another. Instead of opening its shell by contracting the internal muscles, it separates the valves by inserting its arms between them, like wedges. The gills, different from those of other bivalves, adhere to the integument, or rather make a part of it; and it has two hearts, which occupy the two sides of the body. The animal is destitute of eyes, and, to all appearance, of every other organ of external sense, except that of touch; the mouth having neither teeth nor tongue, and being only the commencement of the œsophagus.

22. *On the Animals of the Anatiferæ and Balani*, Lam. (*Lepas*, Lin.), *and on their Anatomy.* — The author prefaces his excellent account of these anomalous *mollusca* by the ensuing remarks:

'We are now arrived at animals very different from all the *mollusca* of which we have hitherto spoken: horny members in some measure jointed, numerous, susceptible of various movements, a mouth furnished with lips and jaws, every thing intimates that nature is on the point of conducting us to the division of articulated animals. Indeed, we should not be surprized if many naturalists, in consequence of the description which we are about to exhibit, should be already inclined to class the cirrhopodes in that division; nor shall we find fault with those who chuse to adopt such an arrangement. At the same time, as their body, properly so called, is not jointed; as we have already in the family of borers, which incontestably belong to the acephalous *mollusca*, examples of articulated members; and as, finally, the shell of the anatiferæ seems to be modelled on that of many bivalves, we deem it best to leave this order among the *mollusca*.'

A constant reference to the plates, and other powerful claims on our notice, forbid us to track the author through the learned maze of his *demonstration* of the *Balani*.

Appended to the work is an ingenious paper, in the form of a critical dissertation, from the pen of Mons. *G. Cuvier*, on the species of crabs and lobsters known to the antients, and on the names by which they were designated: but it is too much condensed to suffer abridgment; and its merits can be duly appreciated only by a perusal of the entire text. We now, therefore, close this volume of laborious and scientific research; in the confident persuasion that it will eminently contribute to animate and facilitate the investigations of others, and effectively to illustrate the history of a race of beings formerly consigned to neglect, obscurity, or the legends of superstition and fable.

Art. II. *Petit Volume*, &c.; *i. e.* A small Volume, containing some Views of Men and Society, by Jean-Baptiste Say, of the Imperial Academy of St. Petersburgh. 12mo. pp. 176. Paris. 1817.

The name of this writer is already familiar to our readers from his *Traité d'Economie Politique*, as well as from a small but comparatively recent tract on our own country, noticed in our lxxviiith volume. He has for some years bestowed his chief attention on lectures in the Atheneum at Paris, taking for his subject Political Economy; and he has succeeded, contrary to general prediction, in rendering that abstract and difficult study a popular object in the French capital. This fact is proved in a very satisfactory manner by the increased circulation of his principal work, of which a third edition has been for some time before the public, and is likely soon to be followed by a fourth. He occasionally diversifies his studies by collateral inquiries; and the 'Small Volume' now before us is made up of a series of miscellaneous reflections, which have occurred to him in the course of other researches. They are published in the same form as the reflections of *La Bruyère* and *La Rochefoucauld*, without much reference to arrangement, or to the dependence of one link in the chain on another. We extract a few passages as specimens.

'*Montesquieu* distinguishes men into two classes; — those who amuse, in contradistinction to those who think. Ah! *Montesquieu,* why do you forget the third and most numerous class? — those who neither think nor amuse!

'Women like above all things to be amused; they are little alive to any services in matters of utility, but surprizingly grateful for the trouble that you take to please them.

'In conversation, the way to convince is not to arrange ideas, or to make out of them that connected and graduated system which forms the excellence of written composition. We should think less of the subject of which we are speaking than of the person whom we address; deducing our arguments from the opinions of our companion, and shewing him, were it even by sophistry, that the point to which we ask for his assent is a consequence of his own views. Conversation requires a degree of address, because we have generally to encounter confined, selfish, and prejudiced minds. — In written composition, on the other hand, we ought to be perfectly clear and frank, because we are to be judged by a public that is impartial, and by posterity which is still more strict and discerning.

'Style is to thought what physiognomy is to the countenance. It does not embellish a false idea, but it renders a fine one more lively and attractive. Ordinary features may be heightened by a happy physiognomy, as a vulgar thought derives lustre from the mode of expressing it. Every language is replete with irregularities sanctioned by authority. To form a language is the part of great writers; to keep a register of it belongs to grammarians. But a bold expression, to be intitled to registry, ought to be both happy and necessary. If it be a great point to know how to sacrifice our less important ideas, it is of equal moment to know how to relinquish, in our expressions, whatever is not indispensable to the meaning. Nothing conduces so much to give boldness and rapidity to language: the reader's mind is carried along; it follows with pleasure a guide whose chariot may be said to fly, and to shew him in a few minutes a large extent of country and a multitude of objects. The writer who makes a point of recording every thing seems to linger; we do not perceive that he gets on; we grow impatient at being kept beside him; we wish to take a lead; we become wearied, and finally throw down his book.

'A translator should not only *understand* the language from which he makes his version; he ought to feel its delicacies and beauties; for how can he give us an equivalent for a beauty which he has not comprehended? He should be a good writer in his own language, or he will not find readers; he should even have a certain versatility of talent, that he may assume a form similar to that of the original; and be capable, when occasion requires, of supplying the expressions, turns, and images of the original by others that are more suited to the genius of his own language, and calculated to awaken sensations similar to those which were excited family of borers, which incontestably belong to the acephalous *mollusca*, examples of articulated members; and as, finally, the shell of the anatiferæ seems to be modelled on that of many bivalves, we deem it best to leave this order among the *mollusca*.'

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Land-carriage, from the total absence of turnpike-dues, as well as from the greater cheapness of labour, is much less expensive in France than with us; indeed it may, on a general estimate, be put down at one half of our rate. This circumstance has hitherto lessened the urgency of resorting to canal-carriage; though the saving would, doubtless, be very great in a country in which the transport is so considerable, the roads are frequently bad, and, above all, the distance of the coast prevents the possibility of resorting to sea-carriage. The great rivers also are few in number, and of tedious navigation; and they would not obviate the necessity of canals, if we even suppose them rendered tenfold more accessible by the adoption of steam-boats.

Under these circumstances, M. SAY advises his countrymen to direct their capital and ingenuity to the completion of canals; beginning with the neighbourhood of Paris, and extending them progressively to more distant quarters. He asks: 'Can the coals of St. Etienne in Auvergne, or of Valenciennes in Flanders, reach Paris by sea, as those of Newcastle reach London?' The French government holds out an expectation that Paris may be made an *entrepôt* for merchandise; that is, a deposit in which goods can be warehoused without paying duty until taken out for consumption on the spot; and without paying any duty if forwarded to another part of the kingdom. To make this advantage effectual, it is highly necessary to substitute water-carriage for the present expensive alternative, since otherwise the more bulky articles will not bear the charge of conveyance.

The present object of M. Say, however, is less to recommend canals generally than to make his fellow-citizens of Paris profit by a basin lately excavated in their immediate neighbourhood, at the village of la Villette, on the north side of the capital. This basin approaches in size to our London-Docks, and would be amply sufficient for a very extensive traffic; receiving foreign merchandise from Havre and Rouen on the one side, and the products of the interior on the other by the Oise, Aisne, and the canal of St. Quentin. Nearly a million sterling has been already devoted to this work; and a small additional expence would connect it with the canal of the Ourcq, one of the very few canals in France that have been finished. A farther and not considerable expenditure would enable it to communicate with the Lower Seine, and obviate the endless delays of river-navigation.

This little tract is written with great animation, and affords to an English reader a curious example of the different style required in addressing the public of another kingdom. On a question relative merely to facts and calculations, the author does not content himself with an appeal to the reason of his countrymen; he assails their imagination, and proceeds in a strain which among us would seem more suited to the embellishments of poetry. Singular as this may appear, it is the true way of operating on the minds of Frenchmen; many of whom have never been accustomed to think twice on a subject, or to view a proposition in the light of calculation. Their plodding neighbours in the Low Countries would inquire whether a project was "safe, solid, and lucrative;" — a Parisian, whether it was *beau, superbe, magnifique.*

The canal of Languedoc, dug in the reign of Louis XIV., exhibits a striking example of the mismanagement of government-undertakings; — its annual returns not exceeding 15,000l., or less than 1¼ per cent. on the capital expended, viz. 1,250,000l.!

Art. IV. *Les Folies du Siècle,* &c.; *i. e.* The Follies of the Age; a Philosophical Romance, by M. de Lourdoueix. Third Edition; with Seven Etchings. 8vo. pp. 308. Paris. 1818.

The French Revolution has exhibited a remarkable proof of the difficulty of accomplishing a change in the national character of a people; for, though nothing could be more different from the tranquil uniformity of the Bourbon reigns than the rapid vicissitudes and terrific scenes of the Revolution, the Parisians of the present day are in point of habits and character very little different from their fathers and forefathers. Every thing related to them, whether in the shape of historic narrative or in that of scientific discovery, must be made to approach in some way to the marvellous; and a grave explanation of causes, or a deliberate chain of reasoning, would be wholly misplaced when addressed to these volatile inquirers. " Truth," says *Tasso*, " should be conveyed in flowing verse, and the mouth of the vessel that contains a bitter juice should be sweetened with honey." (Jerusalem Delivered, Canto I. stanza 3.)

In a short tract noticed in the preceding article, we have an example of a veteran writer (M. *Say*) appealing to the imagination of his countrymen, when treating of so plain a topic as canals; and the book now before us affords a still more curious specimen of the aid which another popular author deems it necessary to call in from his inventive powers, before he expects his readers to summon up attention to serious matters.

At the commencement of the volume, the narrator, a young man, the son of a *négociant* of Paris, is introduced quietly seated in the midst of the family-circle.

' I had been about three months at home after my arrival from Germany, where I had passed several years at my uncle's house. I was sitting at table beside my mother, and my sisters were preparing coffee: silence had prevailed for some time, when my father asked me: " Are you unwell, Joseph? you are paler than usual." " That needs not surprise you," said my mother; " he passed the night at his window."

' *My father.* " What, for Heaven's sake, could induce you to pass a night at your window? should you not have been better in bed?"

' *Jos.* " The sky was so beautiful! the air so calm! the moon so splendid! the silence of a great city has something so awful and majestic, that I could not be weary of contemplating the scene."

' *My father.* " All that might do very well to contemplate for a few moments: but there is nothing extraordinary in moonlight, and night is the season for sleep."

' *Jos.* " I confess, I never thought of sleeping."

' *My father.* " I am, it must be owned, very unfortunate; I have but one son, and have neglected nothing for his education: but what avail his studies? Since you came back from Germany, you have not once touched your violin; you have not sketched a single flower."

' *My mother.* " And before that journey he was so lively!"

'*My father.* "He was a Phœnix in company; he was sought in all quarters; every father envied me such a son."

'*My mother.* "He composed such pretty verses! he was so polite to the ladies!"

'*My father.* "He talked so well with men of information, that people stood round in a cluster to hear him."

'*My mother.* "Now he leads the life of a bear: we cannot persuade him to go out; he scarcely says a word, and is never pleased but when he is left alone in his room."

'"After all," said my father, casting his eyes on me, "if you were to employ yourself on any thing; if you were to read? but since your return you have not once opened the book-case."

'"I employ myself," answered I, "more than you imagine; I write a great deal."

'*My father.* "Yes truly, you write notable things; the other day, when casting my eyes over your papers, I saw nothing but romantic notions and ideas, without either sense or connection."

'"They are not," said I, "without meaning to me."

'"That," rejoined my father somewhat nettled, "is at best a matter of doubt; my understanding is not inferior to yours. I understand *Voltaire*, and you surely do not consider yourself as more profound than *Voltaire*. Your behaviour is too odd not to have a secret cause. Are you uneasy in your mind? Do you stand in need of any thing? Have you any attachment in Germany? Speak to me frankly; you know my affection for you: there is nothing that cannot be accomplished by means of friends and money, and I will make every sacrifice to relieve you."

'My father was evidently affected; I took him by the hand, and assured him that I wanted nothing, and had no cause of uneasiness. "Why, then," rejoined he, "are you so uneasy and uncomfortable? How happens it that you neither do nor say any thing like other people? you do not seem to have two ideas in succession; your head is full of fancies; you like neither a play nor a ball, nor the country nor the town; you seem to be uneasy in every situation."

'"Ah! *Rousseau!*" exclaimed I, turning up my eyes to the ceiling, "Ah! *Rousseau!*"—My mother made a sign to my father; he looked stedfastly at her, and closed our conversation.'

On the morning after this singular dialogue, Monsieur Joseph received a visit from the family-physician, Dr. *Anselm*, whose portrait is drawn at full length, and exhibits a curious specimen of the qualities which, in M. Lourdoueix's opinion, are essential to medical success. The doctor possessed an insinuating manner, a sympathetic deportment, and a great promptitude in understanding and entering into the domestic concerns of his patients. While these qualities recommended him to the mothers of families, he kept up his character with their husbands by an erudition far from contemptible, having a very clear recollection of the course which he had gone through at college, and having afterward given much attention to recent publications: but his ideas, being almost all derived from memory, seldom rose above those admitted truths which in common intercourse pass for matters completely settled, and on which the majority of mankind deem it unnecessary to exercise their reflection. This veteran disciple of Esculapius, on visiting his patient, took an opportunity of entering into a long conversation; in which the young man acquitted himself as incoherently as on the preceding evening with his father, and was wholly unsuccessful in his attempt to make the doctor a convert to his romantic conceptions. A week afterward, Joseph was surprized to see his father come at an early hour into his bed-room, and desire him to be ready to accompany him to the country with a friend; the friend soon entered, and, though polite in manner, was remarkable for his serious and pensive aspect. They lost no time in stepping into a carriage, drove along the spacious pavement of the rue St. Antoine, passed the *barrière*, and, having proceeded some time along the high road, stopped at a large building with an iron railing in front.

'The coachman opened the door of the carriage; our unknown friend stept out first, my father next, and I came last. I was impatient to look around me, and found myself in a square court, three sides of which consisted of spacious buildings, and the fourth was occupied by the porter's lodge and an iron railing through which I could perceive a very wide road, and, at a distance, a river shaded by a range of old willows. The whole of the building was evidently intended for use and not for pleasure. My father was pale, and seemed to dread my looking at him, lest I should perceive the grief which he was unable to conceal: but our friend, addressing me, said, "We have here a very fine garden; if you are disposed to walk, I will give you a guide, and your father and I can employ the interval in settling a matter of business." This invitation was expressed in the most polite terms, but accompanied with a look in which I perceived an air of authority. I nodded assent, and soon found myself accompanied by a guide, and conducted to an extensive garden; here were about thirty persons of both sexes, some coming and going in different directions, others conversing together. I was walking along in a pensive attitude, when a gentleman, passing near me, stepped out of his way, tapped me with a mysterious air on the shoulder, and said in a slow sepulchral tone, "It is all over with us!" The strange scenes that had passed since the morning presented themselves to my recollection; my hair stood on end; my blood seemed to freeze in my veins. I cast a look of despair on the stranger, who repeated, "It is all over with us: the ground on which we stand is undermined: there are barrels of gunpowder below it; and they are on the point of lighting the train." This sudden warning and the alarmed look of my unknown companion made me feel an involuntary tremor; I shuddered, as when we measure from the top of a tower the space which we should have to traverse in our fall. "If that be the case," said I quickly to the stranger, "we must fly from the spot." Hurried on by a blind impulse, I rushed across the garden, trampling down the flowers and fruits, and leaving the print of my steps on the newly dug ground. The stranger ran with equal rapidity, and it was in vain that our guide, less nimble by far, attempted to follow us, calling with all his might, "*Arrétez, arrêtez!*" We were stopped at last by the garden-wall.'

This adventure was only a preliminary to other scenes equally alarming. The stranger, whose panic had caused this sudden ebullition, rejoined the author some time afterward; and he then apprized him that, being in danger of assassination, the only method which he could devise for escape was to set his room on fire in the night, and, in the midst of the disorder, to make his way, sword in hand, through his faithless guardians. In the course of the day, farther interviews took place with other inmates of the mansion; each of whom proved different in his humour, but rose one above the other in extravagance, so as to leave the writer in little doubt about the nature of the asylum in which he was confined. He soon found a more direct evidence to this effect in the certificate given to the master of the house by his medical friend *Anselm*, which fell into his hands, and contained a declaration that, after an hour's conversation, the doctor had found him affected with a high degree of hypochondria. Roused from his reveries by this alarming admonition, Monsieur Joseph betook himself to his room, and proceeded to occupy his mind with serious reflections. — In this part of the book, (p. 178.) we enter on a scene altogether different, and are introduced to a train of political discussions for which the preceding narrative served merely as a vehicle. It is no longer a youth of doubtful intellect who addresses us, but M. LOURDOUEIX himself, eager to obtain the applause of his readers for the soundness and patriotism of his political views. Taking as his theme the political condition of his country, he goes back to a very early age, and describes the relative situation of the Franks and Gauls, preparatory to a course of reasoning on the actual state of France. We will not attempt to recapitulate his comments on so distant a period, but confine ourselves to an extract which begins with a reference to the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

'France in these ages comprized four distinct powers; the king, the nobility, the clergy, and the *communes*, or inhabitants of the towns; in other words, the seeds of anarchy were sown in every part of the country. In the collective assemblies called *états généraux*, each body was actuated by its particular interest; the nobility standing up for their privileges, the clergy for the property of the church, and the *tiers état* for the removal of all marks of inequality. The consequence was that these assemblies were far from labouring for the national benefit; and the kings, who had found their chief strength in them as long as they were actuated by unanimity, now became afraid to convoke them, and sought in unchecked power a remedy against anarchy. From that time, recourse was had to parliaments; an authority which in France did little more than say to each of the different interests, "You shall preserve the power that you have obtained, but you shall make no encroachments."

'The tendency of all political improvement in France has been to point the views of parties to a common centre, to substitute a national for a provincial interest, and to relieve the social system from the various local and detached institutions which had accumulated in the course of ages. It has always been the interest of the sovereign to favour this progress; and in particular to promote the claims of the *bourgeois* or untitled class to partake of the honours of office, and to be exempted from an undue share of the public burdens.

'What course was it incumbent on Louis XVIII. to follow on being restored to the throne of his ancestors? He found the great lines of separation between his subjects obliterated; the clergy having lost their landed property, the nobility their feudal privileges, and the towns having ceased to possess the local revenues derived from land. The King had the choice of two plans; to complete the revolution, or to overthrow it by a re-action. To accomplish its overthrow, it would have been necessary to restore to the church and the towns their respective properties; to give back to the nobility their exclusive privileges; and to introduce once more that locality of interest which formerly made the kingdom so divided and discordant. On the other hand, in order to complete the revolution, it was requisite that the crown should give the clergy not a separate landed property, but an income from the national revenue; that towns or *communes* should possess no particular privileges; and that the abrogation of the feudal rights of the nobility should be confirmed. These points form a key to the two opposite opinions which divided the legislature in 1815, and which still divide our public men, although there seems no cause for a moment's hesitation between the two. In the former case, the King would have revived anarchy by bringing hostile powers in opposition to each other; and he would have retarded improvement, by destroying that unity of interests which it tends to establish. On the second supposition, the King gave his sanction to a practical application of sound principles, and, in fact, pursued in a different form that course which had been adopted by his royal predecessors. Louis began, therefore, by declaring that all his subjects should contribute equally to the public burdens, and that all should be equally admissible to public employments. From that moment, the axe has been applied to the root of national dissension, and a basis laid for a wholesome and beneficial counterpoise, by giving to the representatives of the people the command of the purse of the nation.'

M. LOURDOUEIX proceeds to express an opinion on the improvements which might yet be made in the constitution of France; and which, in his opinion, are neither few nor unimportant. He is an advocate for entails, as far as they regard the peerage, on the ground that the certain possession of property would render the House of Peers independent: on the other hand, he is averse to a law lately passed to empower the Church to hold the property of lands or houses; wishing the clergy to have no source of income beyond that which they derive from the national treasury. His most pointed animadversions, however, are directed against a standing army, 'the most unaccountable of all social institutions in an age of high civilization.' 'What,' he asks, (p. 202.) 'is to be expected from men who make a business of killing their fellow-men, if you pay them a shilling a day? The existence of a single pensioned slaughterer is a scandal to Europe. But on whom, it will be demanded, are we to depend for the defence of the country? — on the national volunteers.' — These remarks are followed by a series of observations on the present state of parties, beginning (p. 206.) with the Ultra-royalists, and treating afterward of the Jacobins, and of the new party of the *Libéraux* or Independents. The Ultras being now in the back ground, and the Jacobins wholly discountenanced, we confine ourselves to the animadversions on the independent party, who are by no means in favour with this author.

'They have,' he says, 'their head-quarters in the fashionable part of Paris, called Chaussée d'Antin: it is there that anecdotes are invented and town-news is fabricated, to be circulated among the public for the purpose of flattering the passions of the people, and keeping up the hopes of the subordinate adherents of the party. It is there that the Royalists are exhibited in gloomy colours, and that an *Apotheosis* is prepared for every one of the *Libéraux* who incurs the verdict of a court of justice. Their secret object is to counteract the government of the Bourbons, and to place the crown on another branch: but their hopes are vain; the firm conduct already held by government towards each party has obliged the factions to abandon their original ground, and to fight with new weapons; some professing themselves to be the advocates of the constitution, and others of monarchical principles. However doubtful may be their sincerity, we are sure of at least one important truth, that the farther they proceed in correspondence with the spirit of the age, the more they will put it out of their power to return to the obnoxious points which they have abandoned. The time is not distant when we shall be able to say that in France there are no longer parties, but merely men of party; the question will lie not between masses but between individuals; and, to predict the end of our troubles, it will suffice to consult a table of average mortality.'

After this serious disquisition, we are brought back to the personal narrative of the writer, and relieved from the fatigue of meditating on politics by the occurrence of some amusing adventures. Mons. Joseph had passed only half of the night in repose, when he was awakened by a dreadful noise in the adjoining chamber; he heard the crash of furniture, accompanied by loud cries, and soon followed by the smell of something burning. He leaped from his bed, ran to the door, and was on the point of bursting it open, when one of the keepers turned the lock from the outside, and called to him, "Come out, come out, our house is on fire." He sprang forwards, and, on casting his eyes over the scene of conflagration, recognized the individual who had given him the unlucky race the day before, defending himself valiantly against a host of servants, who had made their way into his room. The fire was soon subdued: but Joseph was determined not to omit so favourable an opportunity of accomplishing his escape; he therefore quickly traversed the garden, and succeeded in scaling the wall at a spot where the trees enabled him to reach the ground without injury. He now proceeded towards Paris, passed the *barrière*, directed his steps to his father's house, entered it at an early hour, and explained in a few words to his parents that he had become sensible of his oddities, and would study to correct them.

'I believe I shall be in better health in future; should it be otherwise, I ask only that you will not call in Dr. *Anselm.*—I was received with the greatest affection; the day was a *fête* in our family, and I have ever since lived in it in the happiest manner. Concessions have been made on both sides; my relations are now less alive to certain singularities which will probably remain by me for life; while, on my part, I have become better reconciled to the condition in which I am placed.'

The conclusion consists of a few pages, in which the writer apologises for the singularity of his book, and founds his justification on the excentricities of the Revolution. 'Have I,' he asks, 'been more romantic than my countrymen in marching from Calais to Vienna, from Vienna to Lisbon, from Lisbon to Moscow? Both of us have pursued a dazzling chimera, and both have arrived at last at the same result; I mean

I mean that of common-sense.' In fact, the work seems throughout to be a satirical comment on the Revolution; beginning with an emphatic exclamation to *Rousseau*, who, more than any other writer, is the reputed parent of republican visions; and being ornamented with a frontispiece, in which *la pauvre France* is exhibited as torn on the one side by the pride of the aristocracy, and on the other by the violence of the Jacobins.

M. Lourdoueix is, in point of politics, a zealous supporter of the late French ministry, and is engaged, with M. *Auger*, M. *Charles Lacretelle*, and other literati, in the composition of a new periodical publication mentioned in our last Appendix, intitled *Le Spectateur Politique et Littéraire.* His qualifications as a writer are of a mixed and (in some degree) of an opposite character; in description, he is extremely natural and sprightly; in political views, particularly on the subject of war (p. 300. *et seq.*), sound and liberal: but all this is woefully counteracted by his credulity. He tells us (p. 305.) that 'Alexander the Great, on reaching the banks of the Ganges, received from his soldiers a refusal to pass the river, on hearing which he cast himself on the earth, and continued eight days without speaking;' — as if it had not been ascertained that the Macedonian conqueror never reached the Ganges, and as if it were likely that he could have so long forborne to give vent to his impatience. A similar instance of easy credence occurs in a passage (p. 277.), where the author expresses an assent to the ridiculous notion that the Duke of Orleans, in the beginning of the Revolution, effected a monopoly of corn in France, and even exported it to Jersey and Guernsey, that he might throw the odium of a famine on the government of Louis XVI. The Duke's income, large as it then was, would not have sufficed to buy up the consumption of his countrymen for a single day.

A translation of this work has just been published by Messrs. Baldwin and Co., under the title of *Charenton, or Follies of the Age*, price 7s. 6d. — Charenton is a town about six miles from Paris; in which is a celebrated hospital for deranged patients.

Art. V. *De l'Economie Publique et Rurale des Celtes,* &c.; *i.e.* On the Public and Rural Economy of the Celts, Germans, and other Nations of the North and the Centre of Europe. By L. Reynier. 8vo. pp. 550. Geneva and Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 11s.

The author of this learned volume is advantageously known in the literary world by various dissertations on subjects of archæology, which have been successively inserted in the

Décade Philosophique and other such periodical publications. In the present work, he has collected and united those of his investigations which relate to the economic condition of the Celts: for, although the title-page announces inquiries about agricultural topics chiefly, the author expatiates over the whole field of Celtic legislation. His main purpose is to prove that the Celts, when first visited by the Romans, were already a well civilized people, highly skilled in the arts of life, even more perhaps than the Romans themselves; and that this early civilization was probably due to the settlement of Carthaginian colonies on the coast of Armorica. The topic is curious and interesting, and adapted to throw light on the history of Welsh culture, as well as on that of the people of Britany.

Chapter I. contains general considerations on the remote epochs of the Celtic nations. M. REYNIER, however, confounds (p. 10.) the Basque language with the Celtic dialects; which are the Erse or Gaelic, the Welsh or Cornish, and the Bas-Breton. The Basque belongs to a different family of language, and entered Europe from Africa; whereas the Welsh, or Pelasgic, entered Europe from Asia, and may be traced at successive æras from the Crimea through Hungary into Lombardy, France, and the south-west part of Britain. — The second chapter treats of the political organization and of the civil and military institutions of the Celts. An error occurs at p. 172., where the author derives the French word *seigneur* from the German *sieg*, conquest; whereas it is unquestionably the Latin word *senior*, elder. — In Chap. III. he inquires concerning the connection of Celtic religion with public economy. An important document respecting Celtic religion has escaped his notice; it is contained in the preface to Owen's translation of the Welsh Elegies of Llywarç Hen, (see our xiith vol. p. 18.); and in the articles Barz, or Bard, (see our xviith vol. p. 411.), and Derwyz, or Druid, (see our xxiid vol. p. 234.) of his Welsh and English Dictionary. From the evidence of antient native Welsh documents, it results that the Belgic nations were governed by their bards; and that the bards were divided into bards *Braint*, who were the civil magistrates or judges, and bards *Druid*, who were the priests of the community. To the bards were attached an executive power called *Ovyd*, forming an order of cavaliers to which the laity considered it as honourable to belong. All these classes were selected at the pleasure of the bards, from among their *awenyddion*, or pupils; and the elections were made publicly at a *gorsed*, or meeting of bards, which was held every three months, in the open air, at a place set apart by forming a circle of stones. At these assemblies, the bards stood barefooted and bareheaded to recite their laws and their traditions, which were mostly drawn up in triads, of which numerous specimens remain. The Braints wore sky-blue garments; the Druids, white; and the Ovyds, green. Now, all the remaining triads attest that the religion of the Druids was a monotheism; and that Cæsar, when he says otherwise, must have confounded the vulgar native idolatry of those Celts, whom the Druids had not yet converted, with the imported druidical religion. In a poem of Taliessin, called *the Appeasing of Lludd*, the first colonists of Cornwall are stated to have come from Gafis, by which the Carthaginian colony of Cadiz must probably be meant. A Carthaginian origin may therefore reasonably be assigned to the Silures, who civilized the Welsh; and, as it is only from the Jewish population of Carthage that priests of monotheism can have been derived, the druidical religion may be safely considered as a branch of the sacred tree planted by Moses. M. REYNIER, on the contrary, seems disposed to suspect, with the writer of a paper inserted in Sir W. Ouseley's Oriental Collections, that the druidical system is of Hindoo origin: but on this hypothesis no probable cause of communication can be assigned; whereas the destruction of Carthage necessarily compelled a great number of merchants and of priests to emigrate; and to seek settlements in those corners of Gaul and Britain, which had long been to their city what the North-American shore has been to Liverpool.

In Chapter IV. the author speaks of the finances of the Celts; and here he appeals too freely to *Lindenberg*'s Laws of the Lombards, which are not evidence of Celtic institutions: the Gothic nations had in every thing distinct manners and customs from the Celts. — The fifth chapter relates to industry and commerce, and contains many curious facts. It is proved (p. 310.) that linen-garments were known to the Celts before they were known to the Romans, and were especially ordered to be worn by the priest. A taste for gay plaids, striped and checked, is inferred from a passage of Trebellius Pollio; and the arts of fulling woollen cloth, and of carding it, are traced among them: as is also that of making felt, with which they tilted their waggons. Woad supplied the favourite dye, but madder was also much in use. The making of wheels with spokes is older in Gaul than in Italy; and larger wheels were used for carriages. Soap also was manufactured by the Celts. — A most ingenious commentary occurs on the Georgics of Virgil, in which an attempt is made to prove, that Virgil there describes the agriculture of his own country, which was essentially Celtic; and that it differed widely from the Latin agriculture of southern Italy, as depicted by the Roman writers on husbandry. Water-mills are of great antiquity in Gaul. Cæsar found considerable bridges over the Rhone and over the Loire. The use of marle in agriculture was early known to the Celts; and even the important fact that marle dug from a great depth is more operative as a manure than marle which has lain near the surface, and been within reach of the influence of the weather. Marle-pits have been found at the depth of a hundred feet, and in them horns of the Urus, and idols of the Gauls; consequently, they preceded the disappearance of that animal, and the conversion of the Gauls to Christianity. From a work ascribed to Aristotle, (*De Mirabil.*) it appears that the Celts caught and salted herrings for the Mediterranean; and that they had laws which rendered the district, or hundred, answerable to merchants for any robbery committed there on their property. The principal fairs and roads of traffic are ascertained, materially by the help of Strabo. Arras, in Trebellius Pollio's time, gave its name to a stuff which was perhaps tapestry. The pointers of Brittany (*vertagi*) were in such request at Rome as to be sent thither; and the *bardo cuculla* was a sort of hooded mantle coveted there, and in use among the bards. — If any topic is deficiently treated by M. Reynier, it is the state of navigation, which had certainly made a great progress; as we learn from Cæsar's description of the fleet of the Venetæ, in the third book of his Gaulish war.

Chapter VI. continues the topic of interior industry, and dwells especially on the processes of agriculture. A curious assertion is introduced, to shew that the Celtic laws presume an agricultural system superinduced at once among a people of savage hunters: but that the Gothic laws imply a nation of graziers, and provide rights of sheep-walk and other such privileges for the feudal chiefs; and that a grievous retrogression in the arts of agriculture was a consequence of the conquest gained over the Celts by the Franks on the one side of the Channel, and by the Saxons on the other side. The Celts carted their corn, and Virgil alludes to this practice: but no Roman agronomist, says M. Reynier, ever mentions a harvest so husbanded. The Roman plough had no wheels, and no coulter: but Virgil's plough, and the Celtic plough, had both. — Then follows a list of the different vegetables cultivated in Celtic agriculture, with curious anecdotes of each. Fresh proofs occur, to shew how many sorts of grain the Romans learned of the Celts to cultivate.

Rye, oats, buck-wheat, a sort of barley called grout, millet, spelt, and turnips, are all claimed as known to Celtic agriculture, quite independently of the Romans. The author, somewhat unjustly, we think, attempts to rob the Goths of the glory of introducing beer into the north, and to transfer it to his favourite Celts. Herodotus describes the Scythians as already using beer. The present volume, indeed, is altogether a work calculated to make Mr. Pinkerton angry: there is nothing useful, nothing ingenious, that the author does not discover to be of Celtic invention, and to have been taught by the Celts to Romans and to Goths. — The cultivation of meadows occupies a long section. It is asserted that the use of the scythe was known to the Celts; that the sickle was peculiar to them; and that the Latins (see Pliny, lib. 18. c. 67.) borrowed its very name in the verb *sicilire*. A section is allotted to plants used in the arts, and another to garden-plants. Among the Capitularies of Charlemagne occur the following directions to his gardener:

> ' *Volumus quod in horto omnes herbas habeant, id est lilium, rosas, fœnigrecum, costum, salviam, rutam, abrotanum, cucumeras, peponas, cucurbitas, faseolum, cuminum, rosmarinum, carvum, cicerum italicum, squillam, gladiolum, dragonea, anisum, coloquintidas, solsequium, ameum, silum, lactucas, git, erucam albam, nasturtium, bardanam, pulegium, olusatrum, petroselinum, apium, levisticum, sabinam, anetum, faniculum, intubas, dictamnum, synapi, satureiam, sisymbrium, mentam, mentastrum, tanacetum, nepetam, febrifugiam, papaver, betas, vulgigina, bismalvas id est alteas, malvas, carrucas, pastinacas, adripias, blitum, ravacaulos, caulos, uniones, britlas, porros, radices, ascalonicas, cepas, allia, warentiam, cardones, fabas majores, pira mourisica, coriandrum, cerefolium, lactiridas, sclareiam. Et ille hortulanus habeat sub domum suam jovis barbam. De arboribus volumus quod habeat pomarios diversi generis, prunarios diversos, sorbarios, mespilarios, pirarios diversos, castanearios, persicarios diversi generis, cotoniarios, avellanarios, amandalarios, morarios, lauros, pinos, ficus, nucarios, ceresarios diversi generis. Malorum nomina. Gormaringa, Geroldinga, crevedella, spirauca, dulcia,* &c. Capit. ed. Balusii. ann. 800. p. 341.'

To the horticulturist, it will not be difficult hence to discover what were the culinary plants most in request in Charlemagne's time; and probably the same variety of esculent plants formed the usual stock of a garden in the principal monasteries. We strongly conjecture that the Christian clergy communicated to the north many of those luxuries, which the present author would refer to an anterior period. The capitularies of Charlemagne form the Leviticus of his time, and throw great light on domestic economy, as well as on public legislation.

An entire section is devoted to the antiquities of vineyards.

Some varieties of grapes are now lost, the author thinks, which ripened in the colder latitudes. It was customary to twist the stalk of a bunch of grapes about a week before it was to be gathered, in order to accelerate its maturity.—Another section is allotted to cattle. The Gothic codes are more voluminous than the Celtic about animals, and more severely punish the theft of beasts, or the injury of them; and they frequently levy taxes in cattle. Butter was known to the Scythians, as it appears from Herodotus, before it was known to the Athenians: he describes the stationary conical churn. The first mention of iron horse-shoes occurs in the Havamaal of Odin: Homer's horses are shod with brass. The ass is a new animal in the north; and *Le Grand d'Aussi*, to whose *Vie des anciens Français* the present author is very much indebted, thinks that they were not introduced before the ninth century. The hog, on the contrary, is very antient there, and the Celts supplied Rome with bacon. In the days of Pliny, the Romans had no tame ducks, but the Celts reared them from time immemorial. Wax-candles are first mentioned in the commentary of Servius on the Æneid; and M. Reynier thinks that they were invented by the Celts, who were great bee-masters and drinkers of mead.

The latter chapters of this book are much superior to the earlier; but they all display erudition more obviously than judgment; and they contain curious citations relative to the objects under discussion, without convincing the reader of the solidity of the inferences drawn. The author sets out with a confused idea of the Celtic tribes, among whom he erroneously reckons the Burgundians, who were of Gothic origin. *Schloetzer's Nordische Geschichte* is the fundamental book for acquiring a clear and distinct view of the stem-tribes of the north. Some prejudice in favour of the wild system of *Dupuy*, who resolves every religion into a worship of the constellations, and who favours the doctrine of the eternity of the world, may be discovered in these pages; and this prejudice not only assists the author to believe in the very early and complete civilization of the Celts, but occasions him much to over-rate their primæval acquirements. Still, many particulars of great value to the history of the arts of life, and of human improvement, are here brought together in a compact form, and in a lucid order. *Beckmann's History of Inventions* might in some places have communicated additional facts, and from others might derive additional illustrations. A perusal of the present volume cannot fail to gratify those who are partial to such inquiries: but it rather adds to our stock of agreeable anecdotes, than supplies a consistent and satisfactory system.

Art. VI. *Souvenirs des Antilles*, &c.; *i.e.* Recollections of the Antilles: a Voyage performed in 1815 and 1816 to the United States, and in the Caribean Archipelago; a View of Philadelphia and New York; Descriptions of Trinidad, Grenada, St. Vincent's, St. Lucia, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Marie-Galante, St. Christopher's, St. Croix, and St. Thomas's. By M.... 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 1s.[*]

Antilles is the name given by the French to the groupe of islands, which are designated in our maps by the term Charaibean, or Caribee, (the orthography *Caribbee* is erroneous, as the *i* represents a long or diphthongal sound, in the language of the natives,) which are situated at the south-eastern extremity of the West Indies; and which form, as it were, a path of stepping-stones between Trinidad and Saint Domingo. Many of these islands have belonged to France, and retain a French character of civilization: but the rapid mortality of all the European population, the vast increase of people of colour, and the multiplied intercourse of the islands with each other, with North America, and with the Spanish continent, are gradually operating to obliterate local features of manners, and to superinduce on all of them what may be called a *Creole* national character.

The author of the volume before us had various and diversified opportunities of observation; although his voyages were not undertaken entirely from motives of curiosity. He was born, as he incidentally informs us, in Britany; and, as we may infer from some vague intimations, about the year 1763. After having learnt at school to read Horace and Virgil, with which writers he displays great familiarity in a puerile frequency of quotation from them, he went into the military service, and was an officer in one of the regiments which embarked on board the fleet of *De Grasse*; so that he was an eye-witness of the celebrated victory gained by Rodney. He was employed on shore at Saint Kitt's in 1782, and assisted in repelling General Prescott at Basseterre, of which engagement a minute narrative is here given, corrective of the Antigua Gazette. At the peace, the author returned to France, and in 1787 travelled from Bordeaux to Paris, towards his native province, in order to take possession of the family-estate, then fallen to him by the death of his father. In the Diligence, he became accidentally ac-

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[*] See an account of a former French traveller's work respecting the Antilles, in M. R. Vol. lxxiv. N. S. p. 481.

quainted

quainted with Don ——, a Spanish merchant, and a director of the Caracca company; who resided at Saint Thomas, but was come to Europe in order to carry home an only daughter, who had been sent for education to a convent in Spain. The old gentleman took a great fancy to the author, and offered him this daughter in marriage, with an estate of twenty square leagues on the banks of the Orinoko. He declined, however, to quit France, and the service of his king, for this vast domain, so distant from the polished society of Europe: but he professes now to feel a deep repentance at having let slip so singular an opportunity of advantageous settlement. At the Revolution, he attached himself to the royalist party, and emigrated to this country. When *Bonaparte* left Elba in 1815, to resume the throne of France, instead of returning with his King to Great Britain, the writer embarked for North America, with the view of visiting some relations in the West Indies, and of seeing again the scene of his juvenile exploits. It is this voyage which he here narrates, and of which we have now to give an abstract.

The first embarkation took place at Bordeaux, and the landing at Philadelphia. New York and other places, well known here, are visited and described. A second embarkation, which took place in the Delaware, transfers the voyager to Martinique, and here begin the details which are most peculiar to his narrative.

'Saint Pierre, where we landed, is the centre of all business: but it has fallen off since 1789, when Martinique already reckoned 98,000 inhabitants. Eager to go and visit my old friend C——, whose dwelling is on the spot formerly occupied by the Jesuits, I bent my steps thither immediately. The mansion, situated on the west of the new town, is spacious, commands an extensive view of the sea, and is approached along a fine avenue of old trees. The gardens are laid out in terraces, and successive short flights of steps must be ascended, beside which waters gush in tinkling cascades. On the right, and at the bottom of the garden, parallel with the house, are two alleys of spreading trees, into which the sun cannot penetrate; it is a thicket of *galbas*, whose leaves resemble those of the laurel. I cannot describe the luxury of such shades in so hot a climate. At the end of one of these allies is a little alcove, or veranda, in which we may sit in the cool, look through the trellis, and hear a noise of waters which is enchanting: it seemed the temple of Voluptuousness, and I wished for her statue in the middle of it. A basin also is close to it, of about ten feet square, surrounded by jasmines and ananas, into which a fine sheet of water is continually falling with a loud noise. The whole is quite a fairy scene, and reminded me of the baths in Bagneres, at the shady foot of tall mountains, whose bold peaks and velvet verdure give such a richness to the distance, where it breaks upon the view. Here is also an orchard of many acres, animated with domestic birds, and mazy with currents of water, which fill a succession of baths; among the trees I distinguished some mangos, which were not known in the colony at the time of my former visit.'

We make this extract, because it describes a sort of garden which is common in the hot countries of southern Europe, but is widely different from the English taste, and on that account not yet so frequent in the West Indies as it deserves to become. — The buildings erected for the accommodation of commerce announce a state of decay; and, in the author's judgment, a tendency to insurrection was visible among the negroes. He is, however, a great alarmist, and advises the maintenance of white privileges; whereas the best defence against negro-insurrection seems to consist in giving to the people of colour a common interest with the whites, by extending to them the same privileges and the same education. A mulatto-militia might be numerous enough to coerce the entire unarmed servile population. The French islands have suffered most from negro-insurrection, precisely because the French make enemies of the mulattoes, by carrying farther than other nations the insolent distinction of races, in their local practice and conversation.

Hiring a small boat, the author undertook a cruise to Trinidad, through all this archipelago of the Mexican gulf. He first visited Saint Vincent's; where he notices the late eruption of the volcano, and the aboriginal Caribees, who were removed, in 1796, by the English to the bay of Honduras. He then describes the Grenadillas, a cluster of small islands, of which the greater are called Diamond, Becouya, Cannaouan, Cariuacou, and Union. The gulf of Morbihan, which is praised for the great beauty and singularity of the prospect, is likened to this station. An eulogy occurs on the fine voices and admirable singing of the mulatto-sailors. — He next visited Grenada, which is described as a single mountain, rising from a base of six square leagues, and offering a richly variegated and wooded prospect: its summit attracts perpetual clouds; so that it looks like a volcano. — Barbadoes was also a landing-place. This island is suffering from a progressive desiccation, which the author attributes to the neglect of planting fresh forests in the room of those which have been cut down. — Tobago next draws attention: it enjoys a cooler climate than Barbadoes, although its situation is more southward: in this island the tobacco plant was first discovered, and hence named.

At length, the vessel reached Trinidad. Illiberal precautions prevented the author from landing for several days, during which he suffered greatly by sea-sickness. Lake Brea, where bitumen is found, (here said to be the best tar for tropical shipping,) is described, probably from hear-say. Port of Spain is stated to be very flourishing, and to collect a mingled population of every sect and hue from the surrounding districts. The continent of Cumana is visited, and the bocas of the Orinoko are described. A steam-packet should be established on this river, because the currents are unfriendly to the sailor. The author returns to the description of Port of Spain, which is built of brick, and scantily provided only with dirty water; though good water is to be found at no great distance, which he thinks might be advantageously conducted thither. A square public walk, planted with palm-trees, has lately been made along the beach. Vultures abound; and it is forbidden to kill them, because they feed on carrion, and remove nuisances: they seem to have read the proclamation, and exhibit no fear of man. The number of inhabitants is computed at 20,000, of whom one-tenth are whites. The soldiers in garrison are negroes. French players were in the place, who had moored their floating theatre successively in almost all the Antilles: but they were not in favour here; the Spanish original population, and the English settlers, being alike grave, and having made this city the abode of 'spleen and dulness.' (P. 277.) The author quotes these words in English. In the district called Naparima, which passes for the most fertile, grants are made to settlers, in proportion to the number of negroes that they bring. A canal, to unite the Oroni and the Oropoosh, would facilitate the inland-carriage of produce, and greatly extend the dominion of agriculture. The bay of Chaguarama is praised as affording good anchorage: but the custom-house regulations are censured as unwise, and as savouring of the monopoly system. Formerly, Trinidad traded much with the Spanish continent, and received from it many articles of great use; now, although numerous refugees from patriot violence are come for shelter, the intercourse is trifling, because so many duties are to be paid. Would it not be better to tax the cultivated lands, and to abolish wholly the custom-houses? — An insect, fatal to orange-trees, and said to have been brought from Martinique, is occasioning great destruction here. Fig-trees occur, but the fruit is inferior to that of Europe. Humming-birds abound beautifully. The deer of Trinidad, and many other animals, have been brought from the American continent: the meadows were in November very green, and the fire-flies abundant. Much camphor is burnt in rooms to destroy insects. Steam-pumps are put up here to work sugar-mills; and the dearth of slaves will probably occasion the extensive use of machinery in the colonies, and will greatly multiply the number of free artizans. In 1797, the population of the island of Trinidad was thus recorded in an official document:

	White.	Mulatto.	Slaves.	Indians.	Total.
Men - -	994	1196	4164	305	6659
Women - -	590	1624	3505	401	6120
Boys - -	301	898	1252	190	2621
Girls - -	266	758	1108	186	2318

so that the entire population at that time approached 18,000 persons. 'I understand,' adds the author, 'that in 1807 the number of inhabitants had increased to 31,000 persons, of whom two-thirds were slaves: this effect had resulted from various emigrations, to which the islands of Saint Domingo and of Barbadoes had especially contributed.'

On the 18th of November, 1815, the author set sail from Trinidad on his return to Martinique; and on his way he notices the astonishing brilliancy of the stars, that of Jupiter being mistaken for moon-light. The Sugar-loaves of Saint Lucia, two conical mountains, were the first conspicuous objects which he has deemed it worth while to describe; and the calmness of the weather kept them long in sight. December 4., the author landed again at Saint Pierre, which he calls the Paris of the Antilles, and which he revisits with new and added delight, after having compared it with the other metropolitan cities (if we may use so grand a word) of the neighbouring islands. The number of serpents in Martinique is stated to be a peculiar grievance. A case of locked jaw is related, cured by drinking the milk of the cocoa-nut. The island was coasted in a row-boat. The English government-house at Fort-Royal is criticized; and several visits to hospitable individuals are described, which commonly include a dinner and a ball. The operation of the climate, in giving to manners a lascivious tendency, is exemplified by some indelicate verses inserted at p. 399.; and other anecdotes may be found which have a similar character.

The second volume mentions that very beautiful woods for cabinet-makers are cheaper in Martinique than in other islands. The author now determines on a voyage to the northward, lands on the Saintes, at Dominique, at Guadeloupe, and stops to describe the naval victory of Rodney: but he has some exploits of his own to introduce, which constitute claims on the French government. Marie-Galante is next described geographically, and then Desirade; after which he returns to Guadeloupe. He blames the English colonists (p. 127.) for their condescending manners towards people of colour; a practice which, in his opinion, tends to break down the established distinction of ranks and races in the West Indies, and to favour that disorganization and eventual emancipation of the negroes, which have desolated Saint Domingo. We are, on the contrary, of opinion that it is precisely to this conduct that the English owe the superior tranquillity of their islands. The French had not an ally but an enemy in the mulatto; and this was the case because the French colonist treats his own colour, and that only, as a noble and privileged colour, and will not make common cause even with his own children if they have not his own complexion. It is against this unnatural pride of the French nobleman, that the revolt in Europe and the revolt in the colonies have especially been directed; and shall all this experience be lost, and new civil wars be provoked by persisting in the same bad conduct? Perhaps, however, this author is not sincere in his declamation; at least, we can scarcely believe in a blindness so obstinate, and rather suspect that he is aiming at a governorship in the West Indies by using this colonial *slang*, without the intention of acting on it: — if his temper can be trusted, his information apparently fits him for the office.

To Mont-Serrat the next voyage is directed, then to Nevis, and then to Saint Kitt's. Frigate-bay, the scene of the author's military exploits, is described as if it were the plain of Troy; and the friends, who fell gloriously near him, are lamented in an eloquent oration. — Tortola was the next object of his pilgrimage; then Saba, Saint Eustatia, the Virgins, and Sainte-Croix. The islands of Saint Martin, Saint Bartholomew, Anguille, Barbuda, and Saint John, are visited, but offer no peculiar phænomena. That of Saint Thomas, on the contrary, exhibits in a striking manner the result of the liberal and philanthropic policy of the Danish government:

> ' The warehouses in Saint Thomas's are filled with the merchandise of every country, and present the appearance of a perpetual fair. The harbour is so good, the method of governing is so mild, the port charges are so insignificant, and the liberty and facility of entering, staying, or going, are so great, that the island

of Saint Thomas will always assert rank as an emporium, while any colonies flourish around.

'The country is not unwholesome, but suffers a want of water; and, notwithstanding the constancy of the breeze, the heat, increased by the reflection of the mountains, is very considerable. An excellent bathing-house is kept by a French woman of colour, where a *demi-gourde* is paid for a dip. All the languages of Europe are to be heard here, but the English predominates. We dined five strangers at the ordinary, all of different nations. Many Jews reside in this island; who keep their Saturday-sabbath so strictly, that scarcely any thing can be purchased on that day: in fact, the Jewish may be considered as the prevailing religion. The garrison consists of a few Danish soldiers, who parade at the different forts, of which the chief is a square of brick buildings surrounded by bastions. Danish and Spanish coins circulate equally: French gold, guineas, and Portuguese doubloons, pass by weight: for one of these last, sixteen gourdes are allowed.

'A Protestant church and a Catholic church exist, as well as the Synagogue. Ruins of towers built by the freebooters may be remarked on the mountain. One of them is contiguous to the garden of the American consul.'—

'The French, who are here in considerable number, are partizans of *Bonaparte*, and so, I think, are almost all the strangers; in spite of the slavery under which he kept France, his general principles are in favour. The old nobility had been suffered to decay, and to fall into contempt; the clergy, stripped of their property, had lost their influence; the highest ranks were thrown open to men of low extraction; and his perpetual warfare offered to commercial ambition great opportunities of advancement. All this pleases the unprincipled vulgar, who seem to wonder that any person should hold a different opinion. A seller of snuff-boxes told me that those with the portrait of *Bonaparte* sold by auction at eight gourdes per dozen; and those with the King's effigy, in all other respects the same, at three gourdes.'—

'Great intercourse subsists between Saint Thomas's and Porto-rico, an island within twelve hours' sail. Much of the provision sold in this market comes thence; and also fine cabinet-wood.'—

'I went to see the freebooter's tower. It was built by an English pirate who was hanged in 1649, and reminds me of those convents in Arabia, which are entered only by ladders let down from above: it has no door, no access unless over the battlements of the roof, except a recent hole broken by the moderns. This is perhaps the oldest European monument in the Antilles. From its summit is a magnificent prospect, including the town far below, a vista between two mountains which displays a cultivated basin of inland scenery, and the sea in front, dotted with shipping and distant islets.'

A visit to Sainte-Croix is the next excursion. This is the residence of the Danish governor, who also presides over the islands of Saint John and Saint Thomas. His name is

Oxholm; and he is distinguished for treating his slaves so kindly and mildly, that they are better off than the free, being fed without earning their maintenance. The capital city is Christianstadt. Here, the writer observes, 'I saw many barouches with four horses, in which ladies were driving about the streets, elegantly dressed, and followed by mulatto boys on horseback. It was lately proposed to subject the free persons of colour here to the same patrole duties which have hitherto been performed by the white militia: but the mulattoes did not wish for the trouble. Both parties agreed to refer the matter to the government at Copenhagen, and named separate deputies to go and represent their case in Europe.' This concession of equal rights to different colours is most absurdly blamed by the writer. 'The Danes,' he exclaims, p. 311., 'preceded the English in that pretended spirit of philanthropy, which led them to declare first in favour of the black race.' The Saturday, however, is not given to the slaves to work for themselves, as in the Catholic colonies. The sugar-plantations of Sainte-Croix are kept in a state of neatness, which astonishes persons who have seen only those of the French colonies; yet the quality of the sugar depends much on this neatness. The cooperage of the French hogsheads is also a subject of complaint with the merchant. On Sion-farm, the author saw the weekly distribution of provision made to the negroes. They were in number four hundred, to each of whom was given a measure of maize flour, and six red herrings. They are clothed twice in a year; and each has a little plot of garden-ground, where he raises fresh provision for his own use.

Quitting Saint Thomas's in an American vessel bound for Norfolk, the author thence returned to Europe. As he mingles with his narration, which is often poetical even when in prose, several short pieces of verse, we will copy one impromptu, occasioned by a marriage at which he was present:

'*De vingt jeunes beautés que le plaisir anime,*
Amour vient faire l'examen :
Le dieu cruel exige une victime ;
Il la saisit et la livre à l'Hymen.

* * * * * *

'*C'en est fait : et le traître ayant joué son rôle,*
Adapte de nouveau ses ailes et s'envole,
Eu laissant les époux, de leurs feux délivrés,
Calmes au même point qu'ils étaient enivrés.'

This tour, though not a masterly specimen of geography, is agreeable and instructive; and it deserves to become exemplary among young British travellers. They need not for ever drive through Italy and Greece alone. At least, those countries, which the English gentleman may be called to govern, he should visit and know; and he will not easily devise a trip more favourable to the pleasures of every sense, or more likely to suggest important plans of political beneficence, than a voyage over the archipelago of the West Indies.

A second publication, by this writer, containing his peregrinations from New York to New Orleans, in 1816 and 1817, and from the Orinoko to the Mississippi, by the little and the great Antilles, has lately reached us, and will be the subject of a future article.

ART. VII. *Supplément aux Œuvres de* DIDEROT, &c.; *i. e.* A Supplement to the Works of DIDEROT. 8vo. pp. 450. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 10s.

DENIS DIDEROT was born at Langres in 1712, and died at his villa near Paris in 1784, of inflammation on the brain. His father was a cutler, his younger brother was an ecclesiastic, and he himself was originally placed with a solicitor. After his clerkship, he went to Paris to complete his education: but, preferring a literary to a legal career, he undertook to give lessons, and to assist in book-making. He married early, and rather rashly, but had only one daughter by his wife. His first avowed work was a translation from the English of Stanyan's History of Greece, which appeared in 1743. He gave some anonymous assistance to a periodical history of medicine, and published in 1745 an *Essay on Merit and Virtue*, much of which is derived from Shaftesbury's Characteristics. These were efforts of his apprenticeship. The *Philosophic Thoughts*, published in 1746, first display that tendency to sceptical if not to atheistical opinion, which finally pervaded his philosophic works. In 1749 he printed a *Letter on the Blind*, which contained some odious ideas, and occasioned him to be sent for three months to the Bastille. He was at that time intimate with *Rousseau*, but quarrelled with him afterward.

In concert with *D'Alembert*, DIDEROT undertook about the year 1750 to edit the French *Encyclopédie*, which employed him for many years: he received, as editor, about a thousand pounds; and he earned, as contributor, about two hundred pounds in each volume. His reputation was circulated afar by this enterprize. M. *Grimm*, the correspondent of several German courts, who was stationed at Paris by a great northern potentate

tate as an observer, borrowed help from his pen, and repaid it with praise; the Empress of Russia became aware of his merit; and, finding that DIDEROT was in narrow circumstances, she bought his library, allowed him the use of it for life, and settled on him a pension, which began in 1765. In company with *Grimm*, he visited Petersburg in 1773, and was honourably received by Catharine: but he was disappointed, on his return through Berlin, at the comparative indifference of Frederic, who was also a patron of French philosophic literature. Two plays, and some dialogues on the drama, had already been produced by DIDEROT; his *Père de Famille* is especially celebrated, and is perhaps the best and most moral drama extant on the French stage: it has the effect of a work of genius, with the regularity of a work of art. *Voltaire*, in his correspondence, intolerantly blames DIDEROT for suffering his daughter to be brought up in the principles of the Christian religion.

An *Essay on the Reigns of Claudius and Nero*, in which, under colour of apologizing for Seneca, much personality was circulated against persons of the French court, had at first a degree of success which it has not preserved. Some good criticisms on the annual exhibitions of the painters at Paris were drawn up by DIDEROT, between the years 1765 and 1769, for the use of the Empress of Russia, who made purchases at Paris on the faith of this critical catalogue. Three indecent novels, the *Bijoux indiscrets*, the *Fatalist*, and the *Nun*, escaped the early pen of this author; these and other miscellaneous writings have been included in the collection of his works made in 1798 by his friend and executor *Naigeon*. With all their faults they contain energetic passages, which form an useful study for those who aspire to eloquence. There was, however, but little occasion to inquire farther for any pieces of DIDEROT's writing, which might have escaped his former editor. If some pages of the Abbé *Raynal*'s ignorant history have been enlivened by the declamations of DIDEROT, and if the *Systême de la Nature* itself owes part of its eloquence to his contributions, still the scraps will lose their effect by displacement. Several of the pieces contained in the volume before us are fragments of this description, admirable where they were fixtures, but useless in an auction of moveable furniture. We will, however, notice *seriatim* the contents of the volume, without approving that omnivorous appetite for the reliques of genius, which rudely snatches from a grave, deliberately prepared by the author, the excrescences and deformities of his exuberance.

The first of these posthumous discoveries is a journal of *Travels in Holland*, made during the year 1773, or soon afterward. Holland has since changed so much, that these notices retain but little interest; though the choice of topics has its value, and may suggest hints to a future traveller of sense.

Analysis of Don Carlos, a Tragedy by Marquis Ximenes. — This story has since been treated by *Schiller* and by *Alfieri*, and still perhaps awaits the hand of some other poet; for even these great tragic writers have not in all respects made the most of the subject. *Ximenes* scarcely deserved criticism.

Critical Catalogues of the Parisian Exhibitions for 1761 *and for* 1769. — These are curious additions to the *Essay on Painting*, and to the correspondence of *Grimm* and DIDEROT, where such topics are also considered: but it is easy to perceive that DIDEROT did not wish these two catalogues to remain: they contain many judgments which posterity has not ratified; and, if they had wholly perished, the critical skill of the author would have been less disputable. For this reason, he had declined to attach them to his *Essay on Painting*, and his own award ought to have been respected. The high panegyric of *Deshays* is one oversight of this kind; he is here called the first painter of the nation.

Letter to Grimm, on receiving the News of the Pension granted to him by the Empress. — This letter is too long and too novel-like, but it contains passages of striking eloquence.

Observations extracted from the Ephemeris of the Citizen. — These are short critical notices, or refutations, which DIDEROT, while he edited the *Ephemeris*, occasionally attached to the contributions of others. Separated from the documents to which they apply, the interest excited by them is contemptibly feeble.

Reviews of " Researches at Herculaneum by Fougeroux de Bondaroi," of " Lambert's Request to the Parliament of Grenoble," of " Palissot's Circle," of " Zinzolin," of a " Memòir on the Water-works of Paris," of " Philosophic Principles," of the " Military Encyclopedia," of a " Translation from Horace," of " Dupaty's Speech," and of Henriette." — All these articles, though executed with sufficient propriety for objects of minor importance, display little of the genius of *Diderot*, and might have withered unlamented in the periodical miscellany out of which they grew.

Poems on several Occasions. — We copy a fable: but we must observe that a note expresses a doubt whether DIDEROT was the author of this and another fable which accompanies it.

‘ Les deux Mulots.

‘ Sous les racines antiques
D'un marronier spacieux,
Deux Mulots, descendus de différens aïeux,
Avaient leur héritage et leurs dieux domestiques.
L'un, né maître et seigneur de vastes souterrains,
Grossissait nuit et jour d'amples amas de grains ;
De châtaignes et de noisettes,
De cent sortes de fruits, provisions complètes.
Le Mulot, comme les humains,
Dans son trésor, dit-on, ne souffre point de vide.
Il faut, grands ou petits, que les greniers soient pleins.
Celui-ci donc, toujours avide,
Accumulait toujours ; mais quoi, ses magasins
Semblaient engloutir sa chevance.
Malheureux, disait-il : hélas ! l'hiver s'avance,
Et me ravit l'espoir de combler mon cellier.
Son voisin, petit casanier,
Avait rempli le sien, et sans beaucoup de peine,
Aux dépens seuls du marronier.
Ah ! dit-il au Crésus qu'il voyait hors d'haleine :
Je n'ai pas ton vaste domaine ;
Mais en réglant le mien sur mes simples besoins,
Que les dieux, je le vois, m'ont épargné de soins !’

On Public Instruction for Russia.—This is a good memoir, which it does honour to Catharine to have solicited, and to DIDEROT to have furnished.

On an Engraving by Cochin.

Political Fragments, — of little importance.

Dialogues. — These conversations display the dramatic talent of DIDEROT in an impressive manner; so do his novels; and, after having looked over the entire collection of his works, we feel inclined to regret that he did not devote himself exclusively to writing for the stage. His studies have added little to science; and, though his dialectic resources and his vehement declamations have given arms and models to eloquence, it is only when he assails our sympathy that he is truly pathetic, various, masterly, transporting, great.

Remarks, of doubtful authority, close this insignificant collection.

To the persons who possess former editions of the works of DIDEROT, this supplementary volume may have some value, because a complete edition is about to appear, in which they will be inserted in chronological order: but those, who are not already proprietors of some former edition, will here find no object of marked attractiveness, much less any one of the master-pieces of this singular genius. In our nineteenth volume, especially, p. 491., and in our twenty-first volume, p. 578., 578., we have already expatiated concerning this author; and we take this opportunity of correcting the error there committed, when we ascribed to **Diderot** the *Code de la Nature:* though it was inserted in the earliest collection of his works, it has since been claimed for *Morelly.*

Art. VIII. *Histoire et Mémoires*, &c.; *i. e.* History and Memoirs of the Royal Institute of France, Class of History and Antient Literature, Vol. II.

[*Art. concluded from the last Appendix.*]

Memoir *on the Restoration of the Temple of Jupiter Olympius at Agrigentum, according to the Description of Diodorus Siculus, and to the Fragments of it which still remain.* By M. Quatremère de Quincy. — The subject under consideration in this paper is equally interesting to the antiquary and the polite scholar; in short, to every person who wishes to combine the history of the arts with the general or political history of mankind. The dissertation opens with critical remarks on the knowlege of the moderns regarding the genuine rules of antient Grecian architecture; exposing the errors which have long subsisted, from the contemplation only of vitiated models: but scarcely, we think, allowing sufficient commendation to the very rapid strides which have been made within the last few years: —an improvement which has been the natural result of our enlarged intercourse with the antient seats of learning and elegance.

Since the revival of Grecian architecture in Europe, it has been the constant attempt of its professors to re-establish the justness of its proportions in each of the orders: but, as Italy has been usually more easy of access than Greece, the character of the Roman copy has been more strongly impressed on the revived art, than that of the Greek original. The Ionic and Corinthian embellishments were more suitable to Roman luxury and magnificence than the severer style of Doric proportion; and in consequence this latter, when brought into use, was rather made subservient to the taste of the architect than employed as a guide to direct it. Hence the style of it became more assimilated to that of the other orders by an extension of the height, or number of diameters, in proportion to the circumference. The works of Vitruvius have contributed to generate such errors, or rather to prevent the moderns from distinguishing between Greek and Roman Doric [*]; and Spon and Wheler, the early travellers in Greece, appear to have been unobservant of these variations. The present author supposes the first doubts that arose in the minds of moderns, to have emanated from some of the models of *Magna Græcia*, more especially those at Pæstum; yet such at first was the extent of prejudice, that the true Doric was conceived to be either an architectural anomaly, or of Tuscan origin. *Leroy*, who visited Greece, was struck with the difference: but, not having the confidence to convict Vitruvius of error, or to attack the system of the moderns, he pursued a middle course, and proposed as his hypothesis that a gradual elongation of the Doric pillar had taken place, rendering it more high as it became more slender; and thus he established a kind of architectural chronology.* This, however, has been proved erroneous by the date of different edifices; although, if taken with many qualifications, it may probably have more general truth in it than M. DE QUINCY seems inclined to allow. The more the rules of Vitruvius, as applied to Grecian Doric, become open to suspicion, the more strenuous advocates he appears to have found on the Continent. Hence, with this view of justifying the Roman master of the art, it became necessary to assign to the proportions of an order, not described by him, either an origin not Greek or a date anterior to the perfection of the science. This was done by *Paoli*, in his "*Rovine della Città di Pesto*," and his sentiments were adopted by *Winckelmann*. Many antiquaries have consequently imagined that, in the Doric remains at Girgenti, and in those at Pæstum, they have discovered an intermediate step between invention and excellence. M. DE QUINCY has long seen that these errors have arisen from neglecting the synchronisms of architectural remains; and, having personally visited the most celebrated models in Sicily, of the Doric order, which present the same varieties of proportion that are observable among the temples of Pæstum and those of Athens, he has been convinced, (in spite of systems, as he expresses himself, and in default of inscriptions,) that an irresistible analogy classes them together as members of one family, and of a common origin and epoch.

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[*] His ratio of diameters to circumference is nearly the same in all the orders. — Vide lib. v. c. ix.

Girgenti, however, possesses real historical notice to point out the date of its ruined temples; for Diodorus relates that the temple of Jupiter Olympius was nearly completed at the epoch of the ruin of that city, in the fourth year of the ninetythird Olympiad.* This circumstance is more important, because the testimony is directed to the very temple under remark; and not to either of the two, that of Juno Lucina, or that of Concord, which chiefly arrest the attention of the traveller. Nevertheless, these are related to have been built about forty years after the Parthenon; so that no great difference can exist in point of date. The whole series of facts also overthrows the hypothesis that any of them arose during the infancy of the science of architecture; unless, indeed, it could be proved that the two temples, of which such great remains now exist, were distinct edifices from those of which mention is made: but such a position may fairly be deemed untenable.

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* *Ruines des plus beaux Monumens de la Grèce.*—Vol. i. 2*de partie.*

As to the temple of Jupiter, of which so succinct an account is given by Diodorus, and which so greatly surpassed all others in Sicily, it is now to be distinguished only by a site covered with vast masses of ruin; and it could never have been ascertained with any degree of certainty, had not the extent of the ruins been diligently compared by many travellers with the dimensions of the temple given by the historian. These have been found to correspond with a remarkable degree of accuracy: the order of the architecture has been traced by a few of the fragments to have been pure Doric; and, although the remains that bear testimony to this fact are but few, the evidence which they give is perfectly clear and satisfactory. When we say that the modern admeasurement of the ruins corresponds with that of the standing fabric in Diodorus, we must allow for an apparent error in the text of that author: his words are, *Ἔστι δὲ ὁ νεὼς ἔχων τὸ μὲν μῆκος πόδας τριακοσίους τεσσεράκοντα, τό δὲ πλάτος ἑξήκοντα, τὸ δὲ ὕψος ἑκατὸν ἔικοσι, χωρις τοῦ κρηπιδώματος.* It would be nearly an absurdity to believe that any thing could have existed, so contrary to all architectural rules of proportion, as a length of 340 feet with a breadth of only 60 feet. The canon of Vitruvius is a proportion of one half of the length for the width: but M. DE QUINCY observes that the more general proportion in the temples of Greece is as 1 to 2⅕, whereas the words of Diodorus would reduce it to one-sixth. Here, then, is manifestly an error: which some travellers have attempted to rectify by supposing the loss of the word *ἑκατὸν* before *ἑξήκοντα*. M. DE Q. contends that the text is still more faulty; and for the word *ἑξήκοντα* he proposes the reading of *ἐννενήκοντα*, which would certainly offer a very fair proportion of 190 to 340. These emendations do not rest on mere vague conjecture. M. *Dufourny*, who was at Girgenti in 1788, discovered that the building had eight columns in the front: it is subsequently proved that the diameter of these columns was 12 feet; a less space cannot be allowed for the seven inter-columniations, which will give an aggregate of 180 feet; and the difference between the French and the Greek foot being assumed, the number will coincide with the proposed alteration in the Greek text. The author proceeds in an investigation, into which our limits forbid us to follow him, to restore the temple on paper, as it was seen standing by Diodorus; resting principally on that historian as his guide, and comparing his description with his personal observations. We must satisfy ourselves with the result of this examination, without tracing the steps by which it is obtained.

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* This, by the common computation, would be about 400 years before our æra, and therefore cotemporaneous with the end of the Peloponnesian war.

The length of this magnificent edifice was 332 French feet; the width, 180; the elevation, 120. It was erected in the style termed pseudo-peripterous; that is, the columns were attached to the exterior wall, and did not form an open peristyle: they were of the Doric order, and of the proportion of about five diameters to the height, or about 60 feet; the rest of the elevation being composed of the cornice, pediment at the ends, cornice of the entablature, triglyphs, and architrave. The triglyphs appear, from the admeasurement of a fragment, to have been nine feet seven inches in height, by five feet six inches. The two fronts were each composed of eight columns: but whether they formed a projecting portico, or were attached to the building, as were the lateral columns, appears not quite certain; though M. DE QUINCY details many reasons for adhering to the latter opinion.* The flutings of the columns were described by Diodorus as capable of containing a man: they were found by admeasurement to contain 18 inches under the capital; and, allowing a diminution of one-sixth in the pillar from its base, there would be a space in them of 23 inches, more or less, at the bottom, which corresponds with the Greek author very well. On the one front was represented in statuary the battle of the giants;

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* Here he differs from Wilkins, in his "*Magna Græcia*," c. iii. pl. 17. Mr. Wilkins allows only six columns for the front, and considers these to have formed a building *amphiprostyle*, with projecting porticoes at either end. M. DE QUINCY conceives Wilkins to have been very arbitrary in his restoration, and, although nearer to the truth than many of his predecessors, to have been far from precise in his ideas of the building.

on the other, the capture of Troy. The only notice of the interior is that an equal number of square columns, or of pilasters, answered to those of the exterior; so correspondent in their situations as to form a kind of back to the columns which were partially inclosed in the walls of the building. An engraved plan of the edifice, thus restored, represents the temple in a much clearer manner than we can pretend to delineate it by verbal description.

The close of the memoir contains an application of the architectural design of this building, to confirm the critical remarks which were advanced in the beginning of it, and is more particularly directed against the hypothesis of M. *Leroy.*

Doubts, Conjectures, and Discussions, respecting different Points of Roman History. By CH. LEVESQUE. — *First Memoir, Rome under its Kings.* — *Second Memoir, Rome under the Consuls.*

Observations on the Authenticity of the Origin of Rome as it is stated by Varro, and by the Greek and Roman Authors. By M. LARCHER.

The juxta-position of these dissertations answers this good purpose, that, if the reader be misled by M. LEVESQUE, he is re-conducted into the right road by M. LARCHER: — if his general faith in Roman history be reduced to a general scepticism by the former, the latter is at hand to re-assure him. The effect is certainly somewhat singular: but the controversy which produces it is conducted with a degree of exterior civility not always to be found in these literary disputes; and we trust that M. LEVESQUE, when he heard his refutation read at the sitting of the Institute, was not insensible to the politeness of his adversary, who bestows on him all due compliments for his learning, while he exposes the unsoundness of the application of it.

The general purpose of M. LEVESQUE's memoirs is to discredit the received account of the foundation of Rome, and of the first four centuries of its history; and the following are the principal objections advanced in his first paper. The account of Varro, who places the foundation of Rome in the third year of the sixth Olympiad, is not intitled to credit, because the authors who have written on this point are at variance with each other. The art of writing was not known until long after the foundation of Rome; or it was practised to such an extent only as to allow of no preservation of facts and dates, unless by words engraved on stone or brass, which would be a very insufficient mode of recording events. It is improbable that Romulus would have preferred the formation of a new state to the quiet succession to the throne of Numitor; or that Numitor, whose chief support lay in Romulus, would have consented to such a separation. The magnificent public works raised under Tarquin the Proud attest the fact that Rome had then reached a very considerable excellence in the arts, which renders it requisite to anti-date the foundation of that city by some ages; and it may, therefore, be more consonant to probability to suppose a certain Romus, a son of Æneas, to have founded it about 1166 years before the Christian æra. Lastly, the Roman historians assign a space of two hundred and forty-eight years to the reigns of seven kings at Rome, which would extend the life of each to a greater compass than the general analogies of history would permit.

Such is the general outline of the doubts advanced by M. LEVESQUE in his first memoir. The whole dissertation seems to be more characterized by a love of paradox than any other quality; and it presents no results of any value whatever, because it attempts to invalidate history without a pretence of correcting it: or, if such an attempt be any where made, by supplying presumptions far more crude and improbable than those which it professes to discredit. That considerable uncertainty must prevail on such remote portions of history is as trite an observation as it is true; and that fable will always be found much interwoven with the web: — but, if any faith whatever may be attached to the annals of mankind, we should surely grant it on those occasions on which numerous writers of note and character for research unite in a similar representation of facts: more especially as those authors lived at a period comparatively near to the times of which they delivered an account, and on the very spot where traditionary if not written documents were in existence in their own times. Of the positive value of traditionary history, various opinions will subsist: but of the comparative estimate in which it is to be placed with reference to vague conjecture, we imagine that no doubt can be entertained. M. LARCHER has ably exposed the weakness of the ground on which the present objector has placed his lever, in order to overthrow a building now in some measure consecrated by time. It appears that all the best Latin and Greek writers of Roman history date the foundation of Rome at nearly the same epoch; and a variation of twelve or fourteen years among them is no very serious difference in chronology. This, too, was evidently done by them after a comparison of their own earliest writers; of whom Fabius Pictor lived more than two centuries before Christ. The authors, on the contrary, on whose opinions M. LEVESQUE rests, and which are recorded by Dionysius, seem to have been held in nearly as little estimation by the antients as their names obtain in the present day.

The story of the person named Romus would leave such a remarkable hiatus of four centuries in history, that it is unworthy of consideration. What, again, shall we say of the argument founded on the improbability of Romulus separating himself from Numitor? The history of the origin of all the states of the south of Europe presents a series of similar adventures. Orestes, Ione, and Battus were not without hereditary possessions. The members who composed the colony of Romulus have been described as of the very dregs of society: but, although doubtless some such adventurers would follow a new leader, both Dionysius and Livy * affirm that many of them were of a very different class. Even the institutions of Romulus denote no contemptible population; he did not, therefore, quit an established government to be merely the captain of a band of robbers. M. LEVESQUE would, however, refuse his credit to these statements; because, denying that the art of writing had been introduced into Latium, he does not see how they could have been transmitted. M. LARCHER combats this opinion; observing, by the way, that it militates against M. LEVESQUE's own hypothesis; for, supposing that it was not possible to transmit circumstances relative to Romulus, he asks how it happened that the supposed account of Romus, whose æra is placed four hundred years earlier, was preserved?

It will be supposed that the question concerning the introduction of the art of writing into Latium† extends itself very widely; and it is treated by M. LARCHER with much learning and ability, so as to give an interest to his memoir which the mere refutation of M. LEVESQUE's doubts could not have conferred.

The general opinion professed by the learned has attributed the invention of the art of writing to the Phœnicians; the original purpose to which it was applied was that of inscribing events on stone or brass; and, because this latter custom continued for many ages of the world, some persons (among whom M. LEVESQUE appears to rank) have confined the

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* Vide Dionys. Hal. lib. i. 89. — Livy, lib. i. 6.

† We are informed by the editor of the volume before us, that M. LEVESQUE in his second memoir had entered much more fully on this question, and subsequently omitted much of what he had previously advanced.

science itself within those narrow limits, and have presumed that, during many of the ages in which that custom prevailed, no other means of preserving historical records were known.* The Egyptian hieroglyphics are supposed to have been an invention previous to the Phœnician letters: but at the time of Moses, who "was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians," the knowlege of written characters must have formed a part of the sciences cultivated by that people. Few persons would contest the point that the law delivered by him was committed to writing; and this concession will establish the fact that the art of writing was known in those countries 1611 years before our æra. Cadmus is generally allowed to have brought this art with him into Greece about 1549 before Christ; and Herodotus, 800 years afterward, professes to have seen inscriptions on stone, engraved in letters, attributed to the immediate descendants of this colony. To descend still lower; Homer is presumed to have lived about 600 years after Cadmus; and he would be a hardy objector indeed who asserted that the verses of this poet, amounting to more than thirty thousand, were committed to memory only, and not consigned to some more durable monument. It is scarcely credible, again, that compositions evincing such perfection as those of Homer should have had no precursor; and, if it be conceded that they had, it must follow as almost a necessary consequence that such anterior poems were also preserved by this same art of writing.

To proceed; Pliny says that the Pelasgi, about the year 1344 before Christ, introduced this same art into Italy; and, if we suppose their colony to have existed during a century and a half, we can have little hesitation in presuming that the Etrusci, during so long a period, must have become masters of the same science. It will be sufficient, however, for the present purpose, to grant that they were at least introduced by the Arcadians under Evander, two centuries later; as that will establish the fact of the general use of them long before the foundation of Rome. It remains only then to prove the use of them after that period; which, if the previous knowlege be confirmed, might be admitted without farther consideration. The *Commentarii* of Numa were much too voluminous to have been inscribed on any hard material; and Livy, when speaking of one of the succeeding kings referring to the writings of his predecessor, uses the expression "VOLVENTEM *commentarios Numæ.*" * It is certainly difficult to decide what the material was on which writing was performed. The jealousy of the Egyptians was unfavourable to trade, but the papyrus was not a production of that country exclusively: this is an inquiry which must be left for its solution principally to conjecture: but the fact that letters were expressed by some coloured liquor on some material seems scarcely open to a doubt. To the evidence already adduced may be added the certainty that not only was writing known thus early in Latium, but that a regular series of historical records was preserved. The following passage from Cicero is very conclusive on this head:

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* It is well urged that, if this argument had any weight, the Parian and Sandwich marbles would prove that the art of writing did not exist at the time of the Peloponnesian war; which would be absurd.

> "*Atqui, ne nostros contemnas, inquit Antonius, Græci quoque sic initio scriptitarunt, ut noster Cato, ut Pictor, ut Piso. Erat enim historia nihil aliud, nisi annalium confectio; cujus rei memoriæque publicæ retinendæ causâ,* ab initio rerum Romanarum usque ad P. Mutium pontificem res omnes singulorum annorum mandabat literis pontifex maximus, *efferebatque in album, et proponebat tabulam domi, potestas ut esset populo cognoscendi; hique etiam nunc annales maximi nominantur.*" Cic. de Orat. l. II. c. 12.

Those who allow that the Romans under their kings had a knowlege of this art, and nevertheless object to their early history that it rests on no solid foundation, are compelled to presume that these early annals had been lost before the time of Livy, or other historians who have descended to us. They were consumed probably, they say, when Rome was sacked by the Gauls. We conceive that the passage of Cicero above cited sets this argument at rest, because he clearly speaks of them as existing in his own times; and indeed it was not probable that, when other valuable property was removed for security to the capital, the annals of the country would be neglected.

M. Larcher next adverts to the other objections urged by his antagonist, viz. the state of Rome during the reign of the second Tarquin, and the space allotted by history for the successive reigns of the seven kings; on which heads his reasonings appear to us to be sensible, and well directed.— M. Levesque's second memoir consists in a great measure of remarks on the history of Livy; pointing out his occasional discrepancies from other writers, and the conflicting accounts which that historian occasionally confesses to exist, relative to some of the events which he records. We cannot conceive that much weight is added to his system by such an examination. To suppose that any writer, composing the history of a period many centuries before his own times, should meet with no uncertainties or contradictions, and no difficulties in decyphering antient manuscripts, is to imagine a case which probably never occurred in any age or country, to any person engaged in a similar occupation.

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* We should be unwilling to lay any great stress on the story of the discovery of Numa's works, 572 A.U.C. as related in Livy, Varro, and Lactantius: for, if the stone-coffin which contained the body was found empty, the one which possessed contents more perishable than bones would hardly have been found in its original state.

Inquiries concerning the Origin of the Thracian Bosphorus. By M. DE CHOISEUL GOUFFIER. — In this short treatise, the author attempts to prove that the communication between the Euxine sea and the Archipelago originated in changes produced by volcanic eruption. His proofs are drawn principally from passages in antient poets; whom he conceives, in describing the terrors of this navigation, to allude to the existence of such phænomena as would be naturally produced by such a cause. It appears to us that more of ingenuity than of solidity is evinced in this dissertation.

Memoir on the Chronology of the Dynasties or Princes of Caria, and on the Tomb of Mausolus: with Explanations respecting the word Mausoleum, and other words used by the Greeks to designate Sepultures and Funeral Monuments. By M. DE SAINTE-CROIX. — As our limits forbid us to enter into any more historical discussions, we must content ourselves with a brief notice of the latter division, or appendix, of M. DE SAINTE-CROIX. The word Mausoleum has been naturalized in the French as well as the English tongue, and in a similar acceptation; viz. that of a monument remarkable for its capacity and grandeur. Some distinction may nevertheless be drawn: with us, it generally signifies a detached building, capable of containing many monuments, and calculated to be the repository of many persons; and it is consequently inapplicable to any structure commemorative of the dead which is contained within the walls of another edifice. Moreover, we do not apply it to any tomb, however magnificent, and exposed to the open air, unless it shall have the appearance of a shrine, or small temple, erected solely as a receptacle for the dead. If we may judge from the remarks of M. DE SAINTE-CROIX, the signification is not so much limited in the French language; as 'a very magnificent tomb' appears to be his general definition of it. We seem to have copied the later Roman writers very closely in this usage: by those of the better age, the word is not employed, unless with a reference to the original structure, so called, or with the view of aggrandizing any more recent one by a comparison with it; and it is unknown whether the tomb of Augustus was so denominated by himself, or from a presumed resemblance in magnitude to the sepulchre of the Carian king. The word was afterward applied to this building by many writers. Lucan, Suetonius, and Martial, contain instances of it. The present author fixes the more extensive usage of the term to have commenced with the reign of Adrian, and is fully supported in the existence of it at that time by the words of Pausanias; who expressly says, *όι 'Ρωμαῖοι τὰ παρὰ σφισιν ἐπιφανῆ μνημαῖα Μαυσωλεῖα ὀνομαζουσιν.*

It does not appear that the Greeks adopted this expression; and M. de Sainte-Croix, in his appendix, attempts to prove that they possessed no good equivalent for it. He consequently enters into a brief philological disquisition of the several words by which they designated a sepulchre, *μνῆμα, μνημεῖον, σῆμα, τάφος, τύμβος, Σορὸς, ἠρίον, θήκη, ἡρῷον, σηκὸς, πολυάνδριον.* Some of these are by no means synonymous terms, nor are they all cotemporaneous: but of those which were not strictly synonyms, many became such by the indeterminate licence of writers. The word *μνημεῖον* seems to fill up the chasm better than any of the others.

Memoir on several Arabic Inscriptions remaining in Portugal, and recorded in the Travels of J. Murphy, and in the Memoirs of Portuguese Literature published by the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon. By M. Sylvestre de Sacy. — We think that this dissertation will prove a valuable companion to those who examine the truly magnificent work of our countryman on the Moorish antiquities of Spain. It is concise, and relates chiefly to the verification of some Arabic inscriptions.

Memoir on the Instruments of Agriculture among the Antients. By M. Mongez. — *First Memoir, on Ploughs.* This essay on the antient plough is the only portion of M. Mongez's researches on the agricultural instruments of the antients which has passed the press, and forms the concluding article of the present volume. It is enriched with eight plates illustrative of the discussion, and contributing in the highest degree to render the parts of it intelligible to the reader; which, as we may witness in the *Excursus* of *Heyne*, and elsewhere, on this subject, is no easy matter where the instrument is not "*oculis subjecta fidelibus.*"

The author commences with a history of the invention, and the names of the persons to whom that honour has been assigned by different writers in different countries. On this head, we coincide exactly with the opinion of Servius, expressed on the first Georgic of Virgil, at the words "*uncique puer monstrator aratri;*" where the commentator says, "*Non unus aratrum in toto orbe monstravit, sed diversi in diversis locis:*" to which M. Mongez himself assents. Hesiod, in the 'Εργα και 'Ημεραι, mentions two kinds of ploughs, the one simple, and the other composed of different parts: 1. ἀυτόγυον; — 2. πηκτὸν. Eustathius defines the former to be μονοζυλον, made of one piece of wood; and a similar definition occurs in more than one scholiast. In this extremely simple state of the arts, the plough could have been nothing else than a piece of timber, naturally crooked at one end, and sharpened so as to cut the soil; originally worked by the hand, and subsequently drawn through the earth by oxen. Specimens of this instrument have been observed on medals; and it appears from a passage of Pausanias to have been so portable that it was used as a defensive instrument in war. Some of these ploughs had handles, which rendered it necessary to obtain a piece of timber having two forked branches, instead of one, at the same extremity. Virgil speaks of methods by which the wood might be bent to answer this purpose. When the handle was added to the original piece of wood, the machine is not to be absolutely classed as appertaining to this first division: it was, however, so little complicated in its design, that it is scarcely reducible to the second; and therefore we must regard it as an intermediate step in the art.

The πηκτὸν ἄροτρον of the Greeks denotes a very considerable advance in agricultural machinery. The definitions of scholiasts throw but little light on the subject, and it has received a much better illustration from two engraved designs: the one taken from a very antient manuscript of Hesiod, and published in *Le Clerc*'s edition in 1701; the other from *Montfaucon*, who found it in an antient MS. commentary on the same poem, belonging to the Benedictine abbey at Florence. A progressive improvement is manifested in the two machines, and M. Mongez has adapted the Greek names to the several parts, after a minute investigation of their purposes. — From the Greek he descends to the Roman plough, and specifically to the one introduced by Virgil in his first Georgic, v. 160.; a passage which, while it denotes minute description, has nevertheless puzzled the reader more than almost any other in the same poem; the difficulty in a great measure arising from the very indefinite explanations afforded by lexicographers of the words which represent the several parts to be combined. M. Mongez seems to us peculiarly happy in his arrangement of the parts there designated, especially in the signification of the difficult word *buris*: but without a plan of the machine on paper we despair of giving a clear representation of it here; more especially as the want of representative words would induce the necessity of a paraphrastic explanation. He also objects to the interpretation, by which the "*currus imi*" of Virgil's plough have been made to signify small wheels attached to the machine; adopting from Pliny reasons which render it more than doubtful, whether such additions were invented until a very few years before that author wrote.

In taking leave of this volume, of the contents of which we have been able to give only a very cursory view, we must express our thanks for the entertainment which we have experienced from many parts of it; and which, we think, readers in general will find it much more capable of affording than its predecessors.

Some additional volumes of the Memoirs of this learned body have lately reached us, and will command our attention at a future opportunity.

Art. IX. *Voyage en Autriche*, &c.; *i.e.* Travels in Austria, Moravia, and Bavaria, performed in the Rear of the French Army during the Campaign of 1809. By the Chevalier C. L. Cadet de Gassicourt, Apothecary (*Pharmacien*) to *Bonaparte*, and Member of the Legion of Honour; with a Map of the Theatre of War in 1809, and Plans of the Battles of Essling and Wagram. 8vo. pp. 438. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 12s.

This volume contains a narrative of the principal operations of the campaign of 1809; which, like other campaigns in the days of *Bonaparte*'s triumph, was of short duration, beginning in April and ending in July. If the author has not much claim to our attention as a man of learning or extensive reflection, he seems to write with fidelity; describing in undisguised terms the sufferings and horrors of war, and not scrupling to repeat, even at this late period, the sentiments of veneration which were entertained at that time for *Bonaparte*. In the early period of the revolutionary war, more particularly when under the orders of *Pichegru* and *Moreau*, the French armies were remarkable for their discipline: but *Napoleon*, calculating that to give a certain licence to the soldiery would have the effect of making them submit to greater privations, abandoned wholly the plan of magazines, and directed his troops to levy their subsistence on the inhabitants. This unfeeling system, while it caused a great deterioration of character among the soldiers, was but partially advantageous in a tactical point of view; for, though it quickened offensive operations, it proved in the case of a retreat a source of the greatest distress. Even in the triumphant advance into Germany in 1809, M. C. DE G. was a witness of great inconvenience consequent on this plan of living at free quarters; the inhabitants concealing various articles which would have been cheerfully delivered to the troops at a moderate price; and all the corps, that formed the rear-divisions of the army, finding themselves much straitened by the waste of their precursors.

The two great events of the campaign were the battles of Aspern, or Essling, and Wagram; and we extract an interesting passage relative to the former, and to one of the most intrepid as well as one of the most independent of *Bonaparte*'s Generals.

Marshal Lannes (Duke of Montebello).—' I was with a medical officer of rank on the road from Vienna to the island of Lobau, May 21., when we met the Marshal proceeding to take a part in the battle of Essling. " I do not," said he, addressing my friend, " augur favourably of the action which we are going to fight; our arrangements are too precipitate: but, be the issue what it may, it will be my last battle." After these words, he galloped off, and left my companion convinced that he was weary of being perpetually in the field, and apprehensive of a reverse of fortune.

' 22d May. I was not present at this sanguinary conflict, and can speak only from the report of others. Our loss was very great, and the inhabitants of Vienna shewed evident exultation at our disaster. The Emperor, on seeing *Lannes* carried off the field in a litter, ran towards it, and, embracing the Marshal, who was covered with blood, said to him with tears, " *Montebello,* do you yet know me?" — " Yes, Sire, you are about to lose your most faithful friend." — The Marshal bore with the greatest courage the amputation of his right thigh, but a violent attack of fever succeeded. *Bonaparte* went twice to see him, and, in the last interview, *Lannes,* having desired every one to retire into the next room, reminded Napoleon of all the services that he had rendered to him; then, raising his voice, he added, " it is not to interest you in behalf of my wife and children that I speak thus; I die in your cause, and your regard for your glory makes it incumbent on you to be kind to them: nor am I apprehensive of altering your disposition towards them by speaking my mind with freedom. You have just committed a great fault; it deprives you of your best friend, but it will not correct you. Your insatiable ambition will cause your overthrow; you sacrifice without necessity, without consideration, without regret, the men who serve you best. Your ingratitude removes from your presence even those who admire you; now you are surrounded only by flatterers; I do not see a single friend who ventures to tell you the truth. The result will be your being betrayed and abandoned: bring this war as soon as possible to a close; it is the wish of your Generals: it is, doubtless, the wish of your people. You will never be more powerful, but you may be much more beloved! Forgive these truths from a dying man, who is ardently attached to you." — With these words the Marshal held out his hand, which *Bonaparte* grasped, weeping, but without making any reply.'

The body was embalmed, and sent to Strasburg: where the widow, passing some time afterward, insisted on seeing it; and her distress at the altered aspect of him, who so lately was full of health and vigour, is described in affecting terms (p. 135.) by the medical officer who accompanied her.

Battle of Wagram. — The French army, having received strong re-inforcements, was ordered to cross the Danube in the same quarter which had already been so unpropitious to them. The bridges being completed, their van-guard passed in the night preceding the 5th of July; and it was followed, in the course of that day, by the main body, which spred itself along the spacious plain on the north side of the river.

'I passed,' says M. CADET, 'in the evening of the 5th the village of Aspern, which had been taken in the course of the day by our troops, and at midnight I reached a great fire, near which was a guard of grenadiers. I went up, and saw the Emperor sitting on a drum, having around him *Berthier*, *Eugene Beauharnois*, and several General officers: he was hearing calmly the reports made to him by different aides-de-camp, and studied, by the light of the fire, a plan of the ground, making dispositions for the battle of the next morning. I was awakened at break of day by the *générale*, which was beaten all along the line; the troops were forthwith in motion; and at 5 o'clock the fighting began. *Bonaparte*, followed by his staff, rode along the whole line, giving orders, and exhorting the troops: each regiment cried as he passed, *Vive l'Empereur!* and so loud were the shouts that they were heard amid the thunder of many hundred pieces of cannon: but, several officers of the suite being killed or wounded, and the enemy evidently pointing his fire at the group that followed the Emperor, orders were given to the troops to desist from their exclamations, and the aides-de-camp were desired to keep at several paces from *Bonaparte*. By nine o'clock, the whole line, extending fully four miles, was engaged; at ten we saw our left wing give way, and the cannon-balls began to plough the ground around us. Orders were now received to strike the Emperor's tents, and to take back the carriages to the island of Lobau. We were forthwith surrounded by the fugitives, whom their officers in vain attempted to rally and lead back to the line: we thought that the battle was lost; and, recrossing a branch of the Danube, we halted in the island, with the Emperor's secretaries. At two o'clock, an officer came with orders for our return to head-quarters: the centre of the enemy's army had been forced; and their right, which had obtained a momentary success, was now completely routed. On returning to the field, I was surprised at the enormous quantity of bullets which covered the ground, and was distracted at seeing a number of wounded who could not be succoured at the moment, and who were suffering cruel torments from the flames of the corn in which they lay, and which had been set on fire by the howitzers. Nothing is so melancholy as a field of battle when the fighting is over: what a mass of dead and dying did it exhibit, and what singular occurrences take place amid the scene of carnage! A chasseur on foot was killed by a cannon-ball; at the same moment, another soldier, at ten paces distance, fell wounded in the thigh: the surgeon raised him, examined the wound, and found buried in his thigh a knife, which had been in the chasseur's pocket at the time when he was struck by the ball. I was told of another fact still more remarkable. A shell struck a cuirassier's horse in the side, and made the animal drop; the rider then attempted to cut off the saddle, but the shell exploded in the body of the horse and killed the cuirassier on the spot. An officer of the rank of Colonel, weary of existence, asked *Berthier* to give him a station at which he could sell his life with advantage to the army (*ou je puisse mourir utilement*). He was placed in the van-guard, and had his forehead grazed by a musket-ball in the first charge: the wound bled freely, but he tied it up with a handkerchief, returned to the line, and took part in the second charge, amid the acclamations of those around him. A few moments afterward, he received an order to attack a battery: he made the charge, carried the battery, and fell dead with a ball in the breast.'

A considerable part of the volume is occupied with a description of Vienna, its walks, monuments, and edifices. The palaces in the vicinity, particularly Schœnbrunn and Laxemburg, are also described; and we have a series of amusing and informing details on points of statistics and interior administration. Another and perhaps even a more attractive characteristic of the work is the introduction of a number of anedotes relative chiefly to military life. In one part, (p. 222.) we are told of the wife of a Colonel who followed her husband throughout the campaign, and, on his being killed in battle, had his body enbalmed, and returned with it to France. A young woman of Delemont, near Lisle, whose brother, although sickly, had fallen under the Conscription, prevailed on her parents to let her take service in his stead, and actually continued (p. 224.) in the field during six years; until, her sex being discovered, she received a discharge, and returned home, having been made a member of the Legion of Honour in consequence of repeated displays of gallantry in action. Other circumstances occur, of a more distressing nature: we are told (p. 368.) of the death of a young German, who was driven, in despair of peace for his country, to attempt the assassination of *Bonaparte*; and we have (p. 217.) an example of *Dàvoût's* harshness in the execution of an Austrian peasant who had entered the French lines without a pass, but whose only offence seems to have been an incapacity to explain his motives. On other topics, such as the treaty of Pilnitz, (p. 402.) and the often discussed question of poisoning the sick in Egypt, (p. 394.) we pass over the author's observations, because they are foreign to the proper object of his work. He appears to have been a considerable time in the public service, and was known at so early a period as the 13th Vendémiaire (5th Oct. 1795); and his book, though not possessing views of great novelty or extent, is deserving of attention, partly as a military narrative of the events of the campaign, partly as a description of the portion of Germany traversed in 1809 by the French army.

Art. X. *Essai sur l'Etablissement Monarchique de Louis XIV.*, &c.; *i. e.* An Essay on the Monarchical Establishment of Louis XIV., and on the Alterations which it underwent during the Life of that Prince. A Fragment designed as an Introduction to a Critical History of France from the Death of Louis XIV.; preceded by new Memoirs of *Dangeau*, containing about 1000 unpublished Articles, respecting the Events, Personages, Manners, and Customs of his Time: with curious Autographical Notes, of an *Anecdotical* Nature, added to the Memoirs, by a Courtier of the same Period. By Peter Edward le Montey. 8vo. pp. 484. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 11s.

As the reader may conjecture from the title, this volume consists principally of inedited articles from the Memoirs of *Dangeau*; after which comes a dissertation on the spirit of the monarchy under Louis XIV.: to these are attached an appendix of documents; and a short introductory preface explains the purpose of the work, which is intended as preparatory to a Critical History of France, from the time of Louis XIV. to the present. In our eighty-third volume, p. 514., we noticed at length an abridgment of the Memoirs of the Marquis *de Dangeau* by Madame *Genlis*: but, as that lady, partly from a becoming sense of feminine purity and delicacy, and partly from an indifference to army-matters and ministerial questions, skipped many things which have some historic value, both as pictures of manners and as causes of events, it was not superfluous in a new editor to collect an extensive supplement to her publication. Females may do well to be satisfied with her edition: but the muse of history must often undertake to communicate what it requires some dexterity of style to utter.

M. *de Dangeau* was descended from the Protestant family of *Plessis-Mornay*, and was born 21st September 1638. He embraced the Catholic religion in 1657, and went into the French army, where he served under *Turenne* in Flanders. After the peace of the Pyrenees, he entered the service of Spain against the Portuguese, and acquired some distinction. On his return to France, the Queen-mother, and the Queen, who were Spanish princesses, took pleasure in conversing with him about Madrid, in their own language, which he had learnt well; and they included him in their lansquenet-parties, where he won much money. *Colbert* expressed some suspicion of the fairness of his skill: but the King, having watched his play, approved it, and included *Dangeau* in the royal gaming parties. He soon afterward obtained an apartment at Saint Germain, and became the constant companion of the sovereign family. In 1665, the King relinquished a colonelcy in his own regiment in favour of *Dangeau*, and in 1672 conferred on him the farther title of aide-de-camp. The Marquis was also employed in some diplomatic missions; assisted in negotiating the marriage of the Duke of York, afterward James II., with the Princess of Modena; and received several orders of knighthood. In 1704 he became a member of the French academy, and to him *Boileau* addressed a satire on nobility. He obtained for his brother, who was also a convert to catholicism, some ecclesiastical preferments. His wife was a German lady, and niece to Cardinal *Furstemberg*. He died in 1720. His manuscripts, consisting of 500 detached quires, were deposited in the public library of the Louvre: they contain a journal of all that passed at court; and he daily wrote down at night, or employed his secretary so to preserve, an account of every incident which had engaged the attention of the royal family. These anecdotes are for the most part narrated without commentary, and with a precision which displays a command of all the conversational resources of the French language: yet still the greater number of them are so insignificant in themselves, that the entire manuscript would be deemed fatiguing. Madame *Genlis*, therefore, and M. LE MONTEY, have both confined themselves to the selection of particulars likely to interest the public at large. The lady frequently retouched the style, sometimes for the worse: but M. LE MONTEY carefully retains the good old French of his original: Madame *Genlis* is, in her choice of fragments, more trifling and more decorous, M. LE MONTEY more profound and less scrupulous; and we think that the supplementary matter brought together in this volume is worth acquiring by those who are possessed of the abridgment of Madame *Genlis*. The diary itself may be compared with the *Reminiscences* of Horace Walpole, for habitual neatness of diction: but the choice of fact is less discriminative.

Having in our former article on this subject made several extracts from these Memoirs, we will not again trouble our readers with extensive portions, which cannot be very interesting here: but which reveal to a French public the secret history of their most eminent families, and the silent causes of many party-attachments and hostilities, which were still felt actively during the late Revolution. The Marquis does not write in a satirical or ill-tempered spirit, but rather as if he had expected to amuse the old age of the King by reading to him these memorandums of what had passed before them: though the cotemporary anonymous notes attached have less a character of timidity, or caution.

The following trait will shew to what horrible persecutions the Protestants were exposed in 1705.

'28 April. The Duke of *Berwick*, and M. *de Basville*, having been informed that some fanatics were concealed in Montpelier, ordered the gates to be shut: when four of the chiefs were arrested, and those who had concealed them. At Nismes, also, *Ravanel* and *Catinat* were taken, and burnt, on account of the enormous sacrileges which they had committed. With them were seized *Devilat* and *Jonquet*, who have been broken on the wheel. Many merchants of Nismes have been also arrested, who were the accomplices of their pernicious designs; and who will incur severe and speedy punishment.'

Another passage or two:

'21 August 1712. The King gave audience in his closet to Lord Bolingbroke, who presented to him Mr. Prior, and the Abbé *Gautier*. The King appeared satisfied with the speech and address of his Lordship, who returns on Wednesday to London.'

'24 August. Lord Bolingbroke has taken leave of the King in his closet. His Majesty sent to him by M. *Torcy* a magnificent diamond, which *Monsieur* was accustomed to wear in his hat, and which the King had ordered to be set in a ring. His Lordship sleeps in Petitbourg, at the house of M. *Antin*.'

'29 August. Lord Bolingbroke left Paris only yesterday. He went on Friday to the opera, where the King of England' (the Pretender) 'was in an opposite box. This, though accidental, was much remarked.'

About twenty pages of articles occur, which, in the edition of Madame *Genlis*, had been varied from the original manuscript, and are here reprinted conformably to it.

The excellent essay which follows, on the regal government of Louis XIV., is in fact a critical review of *Voltaire's Age of Louis the Fourteenth;* its object being to prove that the historian has improperly flattered that monarch, and, by detailing with complacency the literary splendor of the period, has endeavoured to draw a veil over its despotism and its bad tendencies. M. LE MONTEY has completely shewn that the sincere but ignorant piety of the King, and of the King's mistresses, gave to the whole court a religious feeling and a spirit of sermon-hearing, which bestowed on the priesthood in general, and on Confessors in particular, a pernicious ascendancy over all the noble families who were in favour. The consequence was a tasteless attention to ecclesiastical writings, a principled docility to the royal will, and a cruel intolerance against protestantism. Yet the loosest morals were indulged by the most religious ladies, and acts of adultery were as common and as avowed as acts of devotion: — arbitrary power invaded private property, and individual liberty, with shameless caprice: — peculation rioted in the plunder of the people: — national services were overlooked with ingratitude, but pensions were given to poets and academicians, and preferment to priests; — and these hireling sophists have planted the concealing evergreens of literature over the subterraneous dungeons of the Bastille, and the graves of murdered Protestants. The government of the fourteenth Louis was uniformly regulated on tory-principles: the monarch and the priesthood were the only authorities to which public attention was directed; and for their advancement every thing was undertaken and conducted. France has not yet overcome the mischief of this enslaving and illiberal sway. The jacobinism of the ensuing period was but the revulsion of the string, stretched too far in an opposite direction.

Among the documents appended, a curious paper relates to the attempt of Louis XIV. to be elected Emperor of Germany: but this is an historic incident which is no longer likely to be studied as a precedent.

On the whole, this volume tends to excite a favourable opinion of the qualifications of M. LE MONTEY as an historian. He displays research, courage, taste, and liberality, in his lucubrations; and we feel inclined to wish that he would begin the annals which he announces, not at the death but at the birth of the unjustly blazoned monarch to whom his details refer.

ART.

Art. XI. *Lettre à M. Outrequin*, &c.; *i. e.* A Letter to M. *Outrequin*, Banker, on those Assurances which are founded on the Probabilities of the Duration of Life. By J. N. Nicollet, belonging to the Royal Observatory at Paris, &c. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 63. Paris. 1818.

We have always reflected with pride on the numerous establishments instituted in this country, of which the object is to provide against the decrepitude of age, the helplessness of the orphan, or the distress of the widow; and that pride has not been diminished by the perusal of the small pamphlet before us. We are unable to form any precise estimate of the amount of the life-assurances effected in this country: but they doubtless amount to many millions sterling. These transactions are, from their nature, on the part of the assured, uninfluenced by any selfish or unworthy motive; and frequently they are effected only by self-denial and the most rigid economy, for the sake of providing for those who, by the premature death of the head of a family, might be otherwise involved in misery and want. It will consequently, we think, appear that no institutions in this country do more honour to the high moral rectitude of the people; or offer an example more worthy to be followed by other nations.

The free communication of one empire with another is not among the least blessings of a state of peace; each is thus enabled to study the other's institutions; to adopt them with such modifications as localities and particular usages may require; and to improve them where improvement is attainable. The long suspension of intercourse between this country and France rendered us strangers to each other: false and invidious representations, and political jealousies, led each nation to condemn, without examination, every plan that was adopted by the other; and both are now, but the French more particularly, astonished to find how far their prejudices had rendered them blind to their true interest. Our plan of national schools, on the principles of Bell and Lancaster, has been already introduced to a considerable extent in many of the French departments: our works of art have excited the wonder and extorted the highest eulogiums of every Frenchman of science who has visited this country; and the present tract prepares us to expect that, very soon, we shall see in Paris a plan proposed for following us in the establishment of companies for the assurance of lives and annuities. That England should have been the first country to lay the foundation of these institutions, so honourable to herself and so beneficial to the best interests of society, ought to kindle a spark of generous pride in every British bosom; while the conduct of France is almost equally intitled to applause for the promptness with which she has thrown aside her false prejudices, and adopted the institutions and principles of a rival whom she had been long taught to contemn and dislike.

The pamphlet, which has given rise to these remarks, appears to have been written in answer to certain questions proposed by M. *Outrequin* to M. NICOLLET, relative to the best plan of forming an assurance-society in Paris; and, in the reply, it is obvious that the author has been principally indebted to the observations contained in the historical chapter given by Mr. Baily in his "Doctrine of Life-Annuities and Assurances;" * in fact, we cannot perceive that it contains a single idea that is not already advanced in that work.

One of the principal questions, which M. NICOLLET undertakes to examine, relates to the comparative advantages between what he calls an assurance-company and an assurance-association; that is to say, between a joint company which undertakes at its own risk to grant insurances on certain conditions, and of which the members bind themselves to make good all losses, at the same time reserving to themselves all profits, if any arise from the transaction; — and those associations in which the members enter into a reciprocal engagement to share among the body of assurers all profits and losses. Those who are acquainted with the nature of assurance-companies will not, for one moment, hesitate in their reply to such an inquiry: but in France, where the subject may be said to be almost entirely unknown, it was perhaps necessary for the author to enter at some length into the discussion, in order to render his arguments clear and intelligible. His decision is in favour of the associating regulations; such as those on which the English "Equitable Society" is established.

The mathematical principles, on which the doctrine of annuities is founded, are as indisputable as those of any branch of what are called the exact sciences: but, unfortunately, these principles cannot be submitted to actual computation without certain data, which from their very nature are fluctuating and uncertain. The decrease of human existence is various at different ages and in different situations. The crowded inhabitants of the city, and the thinly dispersed yeomanry of the country, would exhibit a very dissimilar table of mortality, were no other causes operating to the disadvantage of the citizen: — but when, besides the want of good fresh air, we add the daily confinement and too often the nightly dissipation of the former class, and contrast them with the healthy exercise and simplicity of habits among the latter, we shall find that no single table can be constructed that will be answerable to all cases. It is also known that males and females require distinct registers of mortality; that the life of a woman, to speak technically, is better than that of a man; and, which perhaps may appear singular to some of our readers, that the duration of life in married women exceeds considerably that of the same sex who continue to live in a state of celibacy. On the whole, though the principle of investigation in all these cases yields in no respect in point of accuracy to that of any other mathematical science, it is still, in consequence of the precarious nature of the data introduced for the purpose of submitting it to computation, rendered extremely doubtful and uncertain.

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* See M. Rev. vol. lx. N. S. p. 410.; and lxxi. p. 222.

The consequence is that the assurance on lives becomes a mere matter of speculation; and, when companies undertake to grant annuities on the payment of certain premiums, their object is gain; their rate of assurance must be such as to accomplish it; and they will adopt such tables as are most favourable to themselves. Another datum, which, though less important than the former, is still of considerable consequence, is the rate of interest. We believe that the greater part of the property of these societies is invested in the public funds, and is consequently subject to different rates of interest at different times: this must, therefore, also, be fixed at the minimum; and accordingly three per cent. is the interest generally adopted by the London-offices.

All this is entire loss when a person insures with a company; he is intitled to the sum assured, but no more: whereas, when the principle of mutual participation is adopted, every advantage which in the preceding case belongs to the company is now distributed among the several members, in proportion to their several assurances, and to the time during which they may have respectively belonged to the institution. It is therefore in this case of comparatively small importance what tables have been used, or what interest has been adopted; because all the money received is a part of the general stock; and only one common interest prevails among all the members, viz. that of the prosperity of the association.

These circumstances are clearly pointed out by the author of the pamphlet before us; and, if he has thrown no new light on the subject, he has at least placed it in a conspicuous point of view; has examined all its bearings with coolness, deliberation, and good sense; and at the same time has enforced his arguments by such examples as will serve to remove any doubt with respect to the propriety of his decision.

He states, what Mr. Baily has long since pointed out, that the Northampton-tables are by no means a fair criterion of the general state of mortality; and that they offer too many advantages on the side of the companies, and ought not to be employed in the computation of premiums: yet these tables are, or were till very lately, the only tables in use by the London-companies. The author observes:

> ' Adopting these tables, with the rate of 3 per cent. interest, (which is assuredly too low) it will be found that the premiums demanded are at least one-third greater than they ought to be; that is, one-third greater than they would be if computed on the more equitable interest of 4 per cent., and employing the Swedish tables of mortality.— A person twenty years of age assures on his life a sum of 5000l. sterling; and, if he goes to any of the London-companies, they all demand of him the same premium, which if made in a single payment amounts to 2140l. sterling: but, if the computation was made at 4 per cent., and according to the Swedish tables, that premium would be only 1422l. 10s.; and only 1358l. 2s. according to the tables of *Deparcieux:* also, if, instead of 4 per cent., we allow 5 per cent. interest, the payments will be reduced in the last two cases to 1128l. 10s. and 1078l. 16s.'

M. Nicollet then goes on to remark, as we have already stated, that this is of small importance to a person assuring in a society which adopts the principle of mutual participation; because all that he loses as an assurer he gains as a joint proprietor; and he is, on the whole transaction, intitled to every advantage that the funds of the society will admit.

One point, however, of considerable importance, is still to be considered: viz. the proportionate demands that are made for assurances at different ages, and under different circumstances; for, unless these be well adjusted, one part of the society may benefit at the expence of the other; which must necessarily happen if these societies have not a man of competent mathematical knowlege, to whom they can refer in any cases of difficulty. We conceive that it would be just as reasonable for a company of merchants to send a valuable cargo on an intricate and dangerous voyage without a pilot to direct the vessel, as for such societies to manage their concerns without the assistance of a mathematician: accordingly, we find that all those who now stand the most pre-eminent have such a person attached to the establishment; and, when this is not the case, it appears, from the statement of Mr. Baily in the work already mentioned, that the most *unjust* and *inaccurate* mode of computation is frequently adopted.

This also is a point considered by the author of the present pamphlet; and the necessity of attending to it in the formation of a Parisian society is strongly enforced.

We may conclude by observing that M. NICOLLET appears to have been actuated by the best motives; and to have had no other object in view but that of guarding his countrymen from the errors into which, in the infancy of such institutions, they would be very liable to fall. The eagerness with which the tract has been read (the second edition having, we are informed, been sold off in two days,) is a proof that it has made a considerable impression on the public mind in France; and we may therefore expect very soon to hear that some attempt will be made to establish such a society at Paris, in which we cordially wish the institutors every possible success.

ART. XII. *Histoire des Croisades*, &c.; *i.e.* A History of the Crusades, Part III., containing the History of the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Crusades. By M. MICHAUD, of the French Academy, with a Plan of Constantinople; and a Chart of the Environs of Damietta. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 651. Paris. 1817. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 12s.

A TRIBUTE of well-merited praise was bestowed on the two former volumes of this work, in our Appendix to Vol. lxxi. N. S. p. 493., and Appendix to Vol. lxxvii. p. 520.; and the present portion will be found by no means inferior to the preceding in ability and research. Though much less of the glow of fanaticism was displayed in the last than in the first three crusades, still the diminution of that glow has made no deduction from the interest of the narrative; and that narrative is, at the same time, interspersed with many remarks which are highly creditable to the sagacity and judgment of M. MICHAUD. The first volume of his history detailed the particulars of this holy war, from its commencement to the capture of Jerusalem by Godfrey of Bouillon: the events which took place between the years 1099 and 1192 were related in the second; and the present carries the thread of the narrative as far as the year 1240. The author tells us that the appearance of this volume was retarded by the revolutionary movements, which took place in France in 1814 and 1815: but, as the political horizon in that long-distracted country has assumed a calmer aspect, we trust that he will experience no farther interruption in the completion of his design.

Different nations under the direction of rival councils, and separated by conflicting interests, have not often been brought to act together for a common object, or cordially to co-operate in any scheme of real or apparent policy and interest. In the Crusades, we behold frantic superstition and turbulent folly effecting what deliberate wisdom and enlightened policy might in vain have laboured to accomplish; — an union of will and a combination of force among the different nations in Christendom for a common object, in the attainment of which none of the parties had any more than an imaginary concern. Circumstances sometimes exist, however, in which delusions seem to operate on the human mind with more effect than realities; when a vague and undefined interest, — a something inveloped in obscurity, and less palpable to sense than the vapour of a cloud, — will exalt the feelings to a pitch of enthusiasm, and animate the resolution to a height of enterprize, which no object of known good, or incentive of clear unequivocal benefit, could attain. "Man," as the Scripture says, "walketh in a vain shadow:" but, while he is in the busy pursuit of cherished phantoms, does he not often display a degree of vigour and animation, which seems to vanish when he passes into the region of common sense, and has no longer any phantasms to dazzle his imagination? — How great is often the activity and how sublime is the daring of man fanaticized! Then, obstacles which, at other times, would be insuperable, seem as nothing: difficulties formidable as mountains vanish into thin air: Pelion may be piled on Ossa: but they will not be sufficient to stop the fanatic in his course.

The Crusades exhibit a picture of fanaticism on a great scale. They place before our eyes a vivid representation of this wonderfully moving principle, operating at once on a confluence of nations, and giving a particular direction to their accumulated strength. One common sentiment, kindled by the torch of fanaticism, pervades the whole; and, while the delirium lasts, the impulse is overwhelming. Fanaticism, however, is not made up of immutable or permanent materials. It is sometimes only a volatile essence, or a fugitive vapour: but, in the case of the Crusades, it was an ignited cloud that loured over the atmosphere of Europe for nearly two centuries; bursting, at intervals, in a tempest of havoc and desolation over some of its fairest regions. In the first two or three crusades, the fanatic feeling, which operated on the armed hosts that set out for the Holy Land, was of a more pure and unmixed kind than in the concluding series of these devout campaigns. In the latter, the overbearing violence of the religious sentiment had in a great measure subsided, and it became incorporated with grosser and more temporal considerations. When Pope Celestin III. began to sound the war-whoop of the fourth crusade, the history of which occupies the first part of the present volume, the primary excitement had been so much diminished that only one sovereign in Europe, Henry the VIth Emperor of Germany, was found willing to take any part in the enterprize. The Kings of England and of France shewed no desire to signalize their valour, or their piety, in such an undertaking: the former, indeed, Richard Cœur de Lion, had paid sufficiently dear for the splendor of his heroism in the third crusade, by an imprisonment of fourteen months in a castle belonging to the German Emperor. Even this latter monarch, who now seemed ambitious of putting himself at the head of the forces which were raised for the purpose of rescuing the Holy Land from the pollution of the infidels, seems to have been actuated by no other views than those of temporal policy and personal aggrandizement. The mass of forces, collected for this crusade, was formed into three divisions, each of which was ordered to pursue a different route to its place of destination. Henry VI. of Germany undertook the more immediate command of that portion of the grand army which was to march through Italy. It consisted of 40,000 men, whose valour Henry employed in making himself master of the kingdom of Sicily and Naples, or, as it is called, of the two Sicilies. When he had accomplished this object, which he had much more at heart than the liberation of Palestine from the arms of the Saracens, he readily suffered himself to be persuaded by an artificial pretext from taking any personal share in the ulterior objects of the expedition: but, while he retired from the scene of action, the troops which he had led into Italy passed into Palestine, after having committed horrible enormities in Sicily. The most memorable action, which occurred in this fourth crusade, was the siege of the fortress of Thoron: which the crusaders, after a great loss of lives, were prevented from capturing by the dissensions and jealousies of their chiefs.

'A sort of paralysis' (says the author, p. 57.) 'appears to have seized the Crusaders at this period. Some of them, indeed, still kept the field, and remained faithful to their oaths: but others appeared careless spectators of the death of their companions in arms, and of their brethren in the faith. Some of those chiefs, who had quitted their wives to follow Jesus Christ, were seen entirely to forget their holy duties, and to become enamoured of vile prostitutes. In a word, so much vice and disorder had found their way into the Christian camp, that the authors of the old chronicles blush at the picture of it which they are compelled to draw. Arnold of Lubec, after having described the corruption which prevailed among the champions of the cross, seems to apologize to his reader for the fidelity of his narrative; and, in order that he may not be accused of any malignant exaggeration, he adds that he does not give such details to cover any individual with confusion, but only to convey wholesome admonition to his beloved brethren in Christ. *'

In the fifth crusade, we behold Constantinople captured and sacked by the pretended soldiers of the cross; and no atrocity was ever exhibited in the pillage of any town, when taken by storm, that does not appear to have been practised in the spoliation of this unfortunate capital. The conduct of the Crusaders, indeed, was equally adverse to humanity and to the arts; and, while they exercised every species of butchery and violence on the living, of all ages and of both sexes, they committed the most irreparable destruction on many of the most precious monuments of antient art. The fine works in bronze, into which the breath of life had been infused by the genius of antiquity, were melted down, and converted into money to gratify the rapacity of the barbarous soldiery. 'The divinities and the heroes of the Nile, with those of antient Greece as well as antient Rome, the master-pieces of Praxiteles, of Phidias, and of the most celebrated artists, were demolished by the frantic violence of the conqueror.' It is well remarked that, in the statues and other works in bronze with which Constantinople was at this time adorned, the Crusaders were conscious of no value beyond that of the metal of which they were composed: but, while those devout warriors manifested no sentiment of admiration for some of the finest productions of human genius, they testified the most lively regard for the mutilated reliques of some mouldering saint. One honest ecclesiastic, thinking that he had found the head of St. George, or that of John the Baptist, concealed among the ruins, was as anxious to hasten home with such an invaluable treasure as if he had found an enormous diamond. Dandolo, Doge of Venice, one of the chiefs of this devout expedition, received towards his share of the spoil a piece of the true cross; and Baldwin Count of Flanders, who was afterward elected Emperor of Constantinople, obtained another piece of the same true cross: which he presented to Philip Augustus, King of

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'* After having drawn a picture of the depravity of the Crusaders, Arnold adds: "*Veniam non peto, non enim ut quempiam confundam hæc scribo, sed dilectos in Christo moneo.*"'

France, with some hair of Jesus Christ when a child, and the linen in which he had been wrapped at the time of his nativity.

‘ The Greek priests and monks, thus pillaged by their conquerors, abandoned with tears the relics of the saints which had been confided to their custody; and which, every day, restored health to the sick, feet to the lame, and sight to the blind. These sacred spoils, which the devotion of the faithful had accumulated in the regions of the East, were going to adorn the churches of France and Italy, and were received by the Christians of the West as the most glorious trophies which the Crusaders had acquired in the service of God.’

In the sixth crusade, we behold the devout soldiers of Jesus Christ diverting their attention from the liberation of Palestine to the conquest of Egypt. The Christians, in the progress of hostilities, laid siege to Damietta: but the intrepid garrison made so obstinate a resistance, that they afforded the Mussulman army without the walls an opportunity of recovering from a panic with which they had been recently seized; and a long series of sanguinary conflicts now ensued between the Crusaders and the Saracens. During the prosecution of this mutually destructive warfare, Francis of Assise, or St. Francis, the founder of the Minorites, made his appearance in the Christian camp. ‘ His reputation for piety, which had been diffused through the Christian world, had preceded him into the East:’ but, notwithstanding this celebrity of sanctity, the chiefs of the Crusaders listened with indifference to his divine communications. The saint, thus out of humour with the soldiers of the cross, and kindling with holy zeal for the honour of God, turned his attention to the warriors of the crescent.

‘ He conceived,’ says M. Michaud, ‘ the project of vanquishing the Infidels without any other weapon than his eloquence, and the truth of the Gospel. He departed accordingly for the enemy's camp, and surrendered himself to some of the Saracen soldiers, who conducted him to the Sultan. Then Francis of Assise thus addressed Mekik-Kamel [*]: “ I am sent by God in order to shew you the way of salvation.” After these words, the missionary exhorted the Sultan [†] to embrace the Gospel; and then, defying
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‘ [*] The continuator of William of Tyre gives a prolix account of the interview between Francis of Assise, with his companion, and the Sultan of Cairo. The first proposition of St. Francis to the Sultan was that he should renounce Mohammed, under pain of eternal damnation.’

‘ [†] We transcribe from the old French historian: “ *Li soudan, dist qu'il avait archesvesques et évesques de sa loi, et sans eux ne*
pouvait-

in his presence all the doctors of the Koran, he proposed to throw himself into a blazing fire, in order to confound their imposture and to prove the truth of the Christian religion. The Sultan, amazed, dismissed the zealous preacher, without the accomplishment of any one of the objects which he so ardently desired; for he neither converted the chief of the Infidels, nor did he acquire the crown of martyrdom.' (Pp. 457—459.)

Though the Christians obtained possession of Damietta, after a siege of eighteen months, yet the troops of the Crusaders were subsequently reduced to such an extremity of distress, that they were compelled to throw themselves on the mercy of the Saracens. They had lost their tents and their baggage, and had passed several days and nights in a plain covered by the waters of the Nile. Hunger, disease, and the inundation, were on the point of consummating their destruction. The King of Jerusalem, who was at that time as a hostage in the camp of the Saracens, was no sooner informed of the horrible distress of the Christians, than he went to conjure Melik-Kamel, the sultan, to take compassion on his defenceless enemy. The continuator of William of Tyre, whom M. MICHAUD follows in this part of his narrative, describes, in his simple and interesting manner, the affecting interview which, on this occasion, took place between John of Brienne, King of Jerusalem, and the Sultan of Egypt.

> 'The King sat down with his face towards the Sultan, and began to weep; the Sultan looked at the King, as he wept, and said to him; "Sire, why do you weep?" — "*Sire,* replied the King, *I have too much cause to weep, when I see the people, whom God has appointed me to command, dying of hunger in the midst of the waters.*" The Sultan was moved with compassion when he saw the King weep; and he also wept. — Then the Sultan sent thirty thousand loaves of bread both for the poor and for the rich, (in the Christian army,) and this supply he repeated for four successive days.' (Pp. 488, 489.)

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pouvait-il ouir ce qu'ils diraient. Les clercs (*Saint François et son compagnon*) *lui respondirent: mandez les querre, et ils vinrent à lui en sa tente. Si leur conta ce que li clercs li avaient dist. Ils répondirent: Sire, tu es épée de la loi. Nous te commandons, de par Mahomet, que tu lor fasse la teste couper. A tant prirent congé, si s'en allérent. Li soudan demora et li dist clerc, dont vint li soudan, si lors dist, seignors, ils m'ont commandé, de par Mahomet, et de par la loi, que je vous fasse les testes couper; mais j'irai en contre le commandement,* &c." The historian adds that the Sultan made them an offer of some presents, which they refused; that he then ordered them some refreshments, and sent them back to the Christian host.'

This fact is highly honourable to the Mussulmans; and we much doubt whether even the piety of St. Francis, the founder of the godly fraternity of Minorites, would have exhibited the same benevolent forbearance and exalted generosity towards the Saracens, in a similar extremity of distress.

The sixth crusade differed from the preceding in this striking circumstance, that the preachers of the holy warfare permitted the faithful to commute their vow of pilgrimage into a sum of money. This was, at the time, an innovation in the mode of expiating sin, which relaxed the springs of enthusiasm, and made that voyage to the Holy Land, which had before been represented as an inestimable merit in the sight of God, a mere matter of pecuniary calculation: — the missionaries of the crusade thus lost, as the author remarks, 'a portion of their ascendancy!' — 'they were no longer regarded as the envoys of heaven; and the popular credulity no longer invested them with the gift of miracles.'

In the first crusades, religion and its promises were all-powerful excitements to those who ranged themselves under the banners of the cross; and no considerations of a more terrestrial kind were wanting to influence their determination. The companions of Peter the Hermit, and of Godfrey of Bouillon, could never have brought themselves to believe that any pecuniary payment could have been a substitute for the glory and the merit of serving in the holy war. M. MICHAUD also remarks another particular in which this crusade was distinguished from the preceding: those who had been guilty of great crimes were no longer admitted under the banners of the cross: but, at this period, the sentiment of honour, which is connected with chivalrous feelings, and tends to establish moral distinctions among men, seemed to have obtained the ascendant over that purely religious sentiment which inspires humility, which acknowleges in all Christians equal rights, and confounds repentance with virtue. 'The crusade,' says the author, 'in which none were admitted who were not esteemed for their bravery and their virtue, ceased, in some measure, to be a really religious war; and it began to be assimilated to those common hostilities, in which the chiefs have the power of choosing their soldiers.'

Another circumstance, that had a strong tendency to chill the devout ardour which had originally impelled myriads to the Holy Land, was that spirit of subtle speculation which was generally diffused among the ecclesiastics of this period. The schools were occupied with disputes about the cases in which a Christian might be released from the obligation of his vow; 'what sum of money he ought to pay in order to redeem a promise made to Jesus Christ; whether certain pious observances might be substituted for the merit of pilgrimage; whether an heir ought to fulfil the oath of a testator; whether a pilgrim, who died in his way to the Holy Land, had more merit in the sight of God than he who died on his return; whether the wife could take the cross without the consent of her husband, or the husband without the consent of the wife,' &c. While these questions were solemnly debated in the schools, and produced a great contrariety of opinions, that enthusiasm, which (as the author remarks) never reasons, had time to cool; and those who had been inflamed with a desire of performing their devotions in the holy sepulchre, began to yield less to the raptures of pious zeal than to the necessity of discharging an ordinary duty, and of complying with a practice which was established.

M. Michaud very judiciously observes that, when in the sixth crusade they removed the theatre of war to Egypt, the Christians had no longer before their eyes those revered localities which, in Palestine, so forcibly reminded them of their religious professions, and of the Divinity in whose cause they were going to risk their lives: they were no longer impressed by the sight of the river Jordan, of Mount Lebanon, Mount Thabor, or Mount Sion, which were associated with so many consecrated and animating recollections.

The following reflections discover more depth than the present writer is usually found to possess; and they appear to us to merit attentive consideration:

> ' Mankind are, at present, carried away by the spirit of the French Revolution, as they were in the middle ages by the spirit of the court of Rome, and the enthusiasm of the crusades. The French Revolution owed its commencement to liberal ideas, and its continuance to victories. The military spirit has been embodied with the fanaticism of the new ideas, as it was formerly blended with the enthusiasm of religion. When we cast our eyes over Europe, we are astonished to behold two things co-existing, which seem utterly repugnant to and irreconcileable with each other; — a tendency to favour the propagation of liberal ideas, with an inclination to augment the mass of military force. It is no easy matter to account for a policy which tends, on one side, to multiply the apostles of liberty, and, on the other, to multiply soldiers; which, by turns, proclaims a principle and raises a regiment; which talks at the same time of augmenting the armies and of improving the constitution; which appears never to have sufficient laws, and never to possess a sufficiency of cannon and of bayonets. It is easy to foresee the future but approaching results of such a monstrous amalgamation. Every thing inclines us to believe that these results, like those of the crusades and

those of the influence of the popes in the middle ages, will not prove favourable to civilization.' (Pp. 564, 565.)

In our review of the fourth volume of this work, we shall farther direct our attention to M. Michaud's political reflections and more general views. Before we now conclude, we must again express our satisfaction with the pleasing manner in which he has executed this interesting portion of history; which brings Europe into contact with Asia; which exhibits the gigantic conflict, not so much of rival states as of rival religions; which shews how humanity may be mingled with barbarism; and which proves that traits of exalted sentiment may occasionally illumine the deep and concentrated shade of an abject superstition.

Art. XIII. *Description des Appareils à Fumigations, &c.*; *i.e.* A Description of the Fumigating Apparatus established on the Plan of M. *D'Arcet*, at the Hospital of St. Louis in 1814, and since that time in many of the Hospitals of Paris, for the Treatment of Cutaneous Diseases. 4to. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 6s.

We learn from a short Introduction to this pamphlet that, during the last four years, the method of treating diseases of the skin by fumigations has been very extensively practised in Paris, and with great success: that all the different hospitals and medical establishments are now availing themselves of the benefit of this new method of cure; and that the object of this publication is to satisfy the numerous inquiries which have been made on the subject, by giving a very minute description of every part of the apparatus.

Previously to this description, we have a report made to the council-general of the hospitals, on the respective claims of MM. *Galès* and *D'Arcet* to the invention of the fumigating apparatus; a point which, we may infer from the tenor of the report, has been very warmly contested. We know nothing of the facts, except as we collect them from the present work: but the statement appears to be drawn up with candour, and has at least the air of accuracy. The conclusion at which the reporters arrive, after a full investigation, is that the introduction of sulphureous fumigations in the hospitals of Paris is due to M. *Galès*: that his first method of applying them, which consisted simply in heating the sulphur in a metallic dish, was extremely inconvenient; that the box which he substituted for the dish in 1813, although it was free from many of the inconveniences of the former apparatus, was still very incomplete, and was even dangerous, because a quantity of carbonic acid was mixed with the sulphureous gas *; and that the complete apparatus, divested of the objections attaching to the former, which has now been used in the hospital of St. Louis for the space of a year, and has not required during this time the least repair, is entirely the invention of M. *D'Arcet*, who also has superintended the employment of it.

After the report, of which the above may be considered as the substance, we meet with a table containing the number of fumigations which have been administered at the hospital of St. Louis by means of M. *D'Arcet's* apparatus, since it was completed in August 1814; and we shall transcribe this statement as being the best argument for the merit of the invention. In 1814, were performed 4280 sulphureous and 604 aromatic fumigations, altogether 4884;—in 1815, of the former 19,867, and 1552 aromatic fumigations, altogether 21,419;—in 1816, the sulphureous were 20,701, and the aromatic 1578, altogether 22,279;—in 1817, the former were 10,595, and 7309 aromatic; making in the whole of the four years, of both kinds, 66,486. We are not told what is the nature or the object of the aromatic fumigations: but, from an observation which is made concerning the expence, it would appear that juniper-berries, alcohol, benzoin, olibanum, myrrh, and styrax, are employed for this purpose:—mercurial fumigations from cinnabar seem also to be used.

The description of the apparatus which follows is very minute, and indeed occupies the greatest portion of the pamphlet; and it is accompanied by nine large plates, in which every part is most accurately delineated. Without these engravings, it would be impossible for us to convey to the reader any adequate idea of the apparatus; farther than to say that it consists of a closed box, in which the whole body of the patient is concealed except his head; and that there is a heated plate, on which the substance is to be thrown that we wish to vaporize, with proper means of regulating the heat, carrying off the impure vapours, and applying the medicinal agents to all parts of the body. Some of the apparatuses are so formed that they can be used by only one person; while in others, more particularly adapted for hospitals, twelve patients can be fumigated at the same time.

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* This danger, however, appears to us at least problematical; the apparatus, with all its imperfections, was found very useful; and considerable advantage was obtained from it in the cure of itch and other eruptions.

We are disposed to think that M. *D'Arcet's* apparatus is rather unnecessarily complicated: but, on the other hand, we have no doubt that it is very complete, and that it effectually accomplishes the object intended by it. It seems to us to deserve the attention of our London physicians.

Art. XIV. *Essai sur l'Histoire de l'Economie Politique*, &c.; *i.e.* An Essay on the History of Political Economy among modern Nations, to the Commencement of the Year 1817. In Two Parts, pp. 240. in each. 8vo. Paris and London, Treuttel and Würtz. 1818.

Political economy has been for the last half-century a favourite topic of literature; and the work of Adam Smith, on the Wealth of Nations, has acquired and retained the highest rank among the speculative books of this description. Yet, however convincing to the philosopher and satisfactory to the people the principles of that celebrated writer may be, they are not willingly brought into action by the practical administrator. Adam Smith exhorts statesmen to let every thing alone: but they wish to make a parade of interference, to display efficiency, to oblige friends, to patronize dependants, and to take personal credit for the results of general industry; in fact, they would rather put to hazard the reputation of wisdom than incur the suspicion of insignificance and inutility. To institute a monopoly-company, to found a chartered bank, to organize a liberalized church, to endow a system of scholastic instruction, or to create a medical establishment, such is the ambition of modern rulers; because foundations preserve the name of the founder, and the voice of pensioned gratitude resounds from age to age. However clearly it may have been proved that the free competitions of commerce and of science supply the bodily and intellectual wants of the people, in a manner more proportioned to the expedient demand than the contrivances even of disinterested foresight, yet the love of managing, of appearing, and of recompensing, commonly overcomes the inglorious duty of quiescence, and ministers seek in meddling that praise which is to be deserved only by forbearance.

The present author is rather too much imbued with these ministerial politics: he is the friend of interference, of regulation, and of institution; like Sir James Steuart, he ascribes to the influence of government the conduct of the people, and attributes to superfluous order the effects of unguided liberty. He classes the various nations of the world by their fundamental

mental forms of polity, which he thinks may be reduced to three, the Patriarchal, the Christian, and the Mohammedan. Of the first, he considers China as the only remaining specimen; and he endeavours to shew, that the laws and manners of that country are all necessary and natural results from conceding to the head of a family a despotic authority over the whole clan of kindred. Of the second form, many specimens exist; he places its essence in the domestic independence of each household, and deems it especially conducive to private morals and to public perfectibility. Of the third form, we have also many specimens: he considers it as essentially anarchical, as a degeneration of the Christian system, when moral restraint becomes individually burdensome; and he classes, under this form of polity, the philosophic system to which France was tending during the active operation of revolutionary ideas. These are new schemes of classification; and, although somewhat fanciful, they give rise to many unexpected approximations, and original trains of idea. Nations, in the author's opinion, ought to be estimated by the number of happy families which they contain; it is for this purpose that they exist; and it is by placing practical power in the hands of fathers of families in easy circumstances, that the whole current of legislation, of moral opinion, of voluntary institution, and of public enterprize, can most efficaciously be directed to the true end and aim of society, the greatest possible multiplication of such families.

It is observed that the patriarchal, or Chinese, system has been losing ground ever since it came into contact with the Christian, or European, system; and that the Mohammedan system loses ground wherever it becomes connected with permanent forms of government, to which it is naturally averse: but that there is always a danger, in over-peopled countries, of its being revived for revolutionary purposes.

To the Introduction succeeds a statistical survey of the principal governments extant. Asia is examined first; under the heads, China, Tunkin, Russian possessions, British possessions, Persia, and the Wahabees. This view displays much geographical knowlege, and quotes the newest and most recondite authorities; it terminates with the following summary:

> 'Such is actually the position of the Asiatic nations. They are different from the Europeans in not amalgamating with other people. The Copts, the Ghebers, the Arabs, the Hindoos, the Tatars, and the Chinese, are so many proofs of it; and so are the Jews and Gipsies, who have wandered among us. It has been contended that the Jews do not mix with other nations because

they first conceived, and have steadily retained as a point of union, the idea of one only God: but I doubt whether the central idea could be pointed out which thus unites the Gipsies. Others have sought to explain the phænomenon by their occupations: but, although it must be acknowleged that the Jews have every where employed themselves in traffic both among antient and modern nations, and that the Gipsies have addicted themselves to pilfering, it is not ascertained whether such was not their habit before they came into Europe, and whether these occupations have not some cause which remains unknown.

> 'As for the general economy of Asia, it differs essentially from that of Europe by the polygamy which it tolerates, and by the modifications thus produced in the order of families. The difference becomes still more sensible among the Mohammedans, in consequence of the existence of slavery; which, by subjecting the greater part of the people to insuperable poverty, restrains consumption in the most numerous class to mere necessaries, and thus greatly checks production. This circumstance has prevented the Mohammedan nations from offering to commerce those encouragements which it enjoys in Europe, although Asia seems to have the advantage in soil and climate. The Chinese system does not restrain production, but it impedes commerce; and the Chinese, as well as the Mohammedans, are without those great establishments which have founded and decorated European commerce, and which characterize the European system. The latter has made a great progress in Asia during the last century, having overspread Russia and Hindostan.'

From Asia the author proceeds to Africa, which is dispatched in a single short chapter, as affording at present but little resource to the merchant. He thinks, however, that the times may return, 'when poets contended at Fez for the prize of Arabian odes; when the rabbi Moses Ben Maimon there explained learnedly the laws of his nation; when Algiers, and other new sea-ports, were founded by the superfluities of thriving commerce; when Tunis fetched her embellishments from among Punic and Roman ruins; when a single river, in its course from Mount Atlas, put in motion 3000 mills; or earlier yet when Carthage, girt with 300 cities, was colonizing Spain, and exploring and civilizing the savage coasts of northern Europe.'

Leaving Africa, the author passes to America; which he describes philosophically under the heads, United States, Southern States, Brazil, San-Domingo, and British Colonies. To the statistical account succeeds this summary:

> 'America has no longer to fear from Europe any loss of independence: but she has more than ever to fear lest the vices, which rend Europe asunder, should penetrate there, as well as the illumination which has grown up with them. She is richly provided

with the elements of national prosperity: but these elements are not yet consolidated, either in the north or in the south. The English language will probably prevail in the former, and the Spanish in the latter. But every thing announces the rise of a greater number of independent nations, differing in climate, in occupations, and productions; — and thus the history of modern Europe will re-commence in America.'

The author now crosses back to Europe, the divisions of which are considered in the following order; France, England, Spain and Portugal, Swisserland, Italy, Germany, Austria, Prussia, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Russia, and Turkey.

The second volume, or part, may be regarded as a general summary of those reflections and inferences which the compilation of the foregoing facts suggested. Among them are scattered many valuable hints, especially when Germany is the topic which is the *patria*, the *father-land* of the author. It would, however, be useless here to follow him into the minute suggestions of reform which occur. A very cautious spirit pervades his hints; and he seems more anxious to preserve even an incumbrance than to alter even an abuse.

It appears that the writer deems the Jews incorrigible; and he does not sufficiently disapprove that spirit in his countrymen, which is once more excluding them from citizenship in the free towns, such as Hamburg, Lubeck, and Frankfort. In our judgment, if the Jews would bind out their sons apprentices at the age of fourteen to those trades which are commonly exercised by settled and residentiary Christians, they would soon be found to produce a numerous band of industrious tradesmen, with habits of staying at home. The resident trader, who always expects the same customer again, and depends for his success on inducing the repetition of application, will never find his account in taking undue advantages: by ceasing to be pedlars, the Jews will become honest: it is the occupation, not the sect, which prepares them for sharp dealing.

The civilization of Africa is another favourite topic with the present author; which might have been greatly facilitated if the French had conquered Ægypt. A system of collateral aggrandizement by a similar attempt on Tunis, and the dependent territory, would not have cost more lives, or more effort, to this country, than the slaughter at the mouth of the Nile. Politicians are too apt to forget that posterity does not, like the extant generation, praise every enterprize which is successful; success itself, when the result is disadvantageous to the great whole of human concern, becoming only a title to anger. No true glory, no lasting praise, can be gained but in accomplishing *useful* undertakings; and the most splendid victories, won in a bad cause, can only expose at last the triumphant nation to intellectual dishonour, to jealousy more extensive, and to impediments more lasting.

To China this author prophecies a revolutionary crisis. (Vol. ii. p. 11.) He thinks that the time is arrived, at which that vast and antient monarchy is about to undergo a great internal ferment; and that European views and opinions have so far penetrated into the literary class, that a secret alliance will soon be formed between the innovators and the government of Calcutta. Not a conquest of China, but a recognized independence, in the hands of a mandarinate friendly to alphabetic literature and to free trade, is the result which is here prognosticated.

On the administration of Russia, much is said. The first great service to be rendered to that empire is to remove the site of the metropolis into the better climate of the south; and to place it on the largest river of those which fall into the Black Sea, and at the highest point accessible to shipping. On the Volga below Woronesk, some such spot exists, which might become a centre of civilization to the surrounding region.

Much condensation of geographical knowlege is contained in this work, which may be read with instruction, and consulted with advantage, by persons engaged in political pursuits. Notwithstanding the assertion of the title-page, we suspect the place of impression to be Frankfort or Berlin.

Art. XV. *Essais Historiques et Critiques, &c.; i.e.* Historical and Critical Essays on Richard III., King of England. By M. J. Rey. 8vo. pp. 374. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 8s. 6d.

In the main, this volume is little more than a translation into French of Walpole's *Historic Doubts:* but some needless remarks and reflections are interspersed, tending to excite a local interest about the inquiry, and to disguise the closeness of the plagiarism. Such declamatory common-places add rather to the eloquence than to the instruction of the work, which is here divided into twenty-five chapters, and ushered in with much solemnity: but it contains no additional research, and may be passed over contentedly in British collections of foreign literature.

One hypothesis, which apparently occurred neither to Walpole nor to M. Rey, may yet deserve a critical discussion;

— namely, whether Lambert Simnel was not the true Edward the Fifth, and Peter Warbeck the true Duke of York.

The determination of Richard III. to found his title to the crown on the illegitimation, or bastardization, of the children of Edward IV. is incompatible with the project of destroying them: they only stood in his way as legitimate children. If he considered them as bastards, he would have suffered the mother to take them to Oxford, to give them the priest Simon for a preceptor, to bring them up under such obscure names as Lambert Simnel and Peter Warbeck; and, provided that the multitude heard nothing of their descent, he might be contented that they should retain some intercourse with the eminent among their early friends. In this state, probably, things went on during the whole reign of Richard III.; the people supposing the young princes to be in honourable custody at the Tower, and, when Richard III. lost his own son, not unlikely to be weighed in a kind balance against other possible successors. After the accession of Henry VII., no time was to be lost in sounding the friends of Edward the Fourth's children; the new and ill-established power was to be combated at first, or there could be little hope of success. Accordingly, Lambert Simnel, who was of the precise age of Edward V., but who probably appeared still younger than he was, came forwards in the very first year of the accession of Henry VII. to canvass for support. It might be convenient to spread the report that he was Warwick, or that he was the Duke of York, because direct attempts on his life were in the uncertainty less likely to occur: but, on any other hypothesis than that he was Edward V., the avowed assistance given to him by the Queen-dowager cannot be explained. Edward V. had a strong interest to live incognito, to sound and visit his friends under a feigned name, and to give himself out as another, until his strength could be ascertained; but the Queen-dowager, who must have been able to appreciate the exact fact, would never have assisted a stranger to supersede her offspring, and would never have encouraged a pretender to produce in the public mind an alarm that was likely to occasion the proscription of her own children. The Earl of Kildare, when Simnel reached Dublin, would surely not have ventured to proclaim a baker's son by the name of King Edward; he was not a man to be deceived by a counterfeit prince; and the priest Simon must have brought proofs of a very royal descent: — but it was a great object to hold him out for Warwick, because all the Yorkists could thus co-operate, without demurring between their rightful sovereigns. As long as the act of parliament subsisted which bastardized the children of Edward IV., Warwick was the constitutional heir. The seizure of the Queen-dowager, and the forfeiture of all her lands, would scarcely have been attempted by Henry VII., if Simnel had really been an impostor; but this suppression of the Queen's testimony was precisely the way to make him appear as such. Warwick eagerly assisted Henry VII. in proving that Simnel had abused his name; and, this deception being detected satisfactorily, Simnel could no longer obtain credit for better founded pretensions. Elizabeth, the eldest sister of Edward IV., who, like the Queen-dowager, could surely not have been the dupe of Simnel, abetted his claims; and Margaret, the Duchess of Burgundy, who could not naturally have been disposed to encourage any one to usurp and supersede the rights of her family, raised foreign troops for Simnel. In short, all the near kindred of the children of Edward IV. acted in Simnel's behalf, as if they knew him to be one of the family. The battle of Stoke, however, overthrew his hopes; he was taken prisoner, systematically degraded by Henry VII., and employed first in the kitchen and then in the mews, but was very soon finally arrested by death; and the priest, his preceptor, was threatened, and then hired, into silence. A like policy was repeated, with a like effect, against the other brother, Peter Warbeck. Such, at least, seems to be one probable way of explaining the conduct of the many great and noble persons, who took part in the two remarkable rebellions against Henry VII. *He* had a strong interest in crying down his competitors as impostors: but his antagonists were at no loss for a chieftain, who had a better title to the crown than he possessed;—if they accepted boy-pretenders, they conceived themselves bound to do this from deference to birthright.

This volume is likely to excite some attention in France, if doubts are still entertained there about the existence of the Dauphin, son of Louis XVI., and while tribunals are occupied in discussing the pretensions of mimic princes. There is a pleasure in comparing parallel cases. Much analogy may be fancied to exist between the Lambert Simnel of our annals, and the *Mathurin Bruneau* who has recently practised on French credulity: but we suspect these coupled facts to be the inverse of each other; and that in England the real prince was put down, and set aside as a pretender, while in France it was a false prince who arrogated the regal rank.

Art. XVI. *Coup d'Œil sur les Démêlés*, &c.; *i.e.* A Survey of the Differences between the Courts of Bavaria and Baden. By M. Bignon. 8vo. pp. 116. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 4s.

This is a French plea for continuing to the illegitimate descendants of the house of Baden those rights of sovereignty that have been hitherto enjoyed by the legitimate branch, which was becoming extinct at the time of its publication. Our readers know that the then reigning Grand-duke has lately died, and that the affairs of the state have been since troubled with disputes. According to the law of the German empire, (we translate the words of *Pütter*, *Constitution of Germany*, vol. iii. p. 22.) "if a prince marries a person of inferior condition, that is, not of a sovereign family, the children by such marriage shall not inherit the princely title, nor succeed to the sovereignty." This law, when first enacted, was avowedly declaratory of a practice very antient in the German empire, of tolerating in their princes *left-hand* marriages, as they were called, in order not to multiply an expensive class of younger brothers. It has been uniformly brought into operation. For instance, in the year 1744, Duke Anthony Ulrich of Meinungen appealed to the Diet concerning a sentence of illegitimacy pronounced against his children by an ignoble marriage: but an Imperial declaration, in the name of the Germanic constitution, was obtained on the 24th of July, 1747, which declared such posterity incapable of acceding to sovereignty. In short, the children of German princes, not intermarried with daughters of sovereigns, have the rank in society which the children of British princes would have, who should marry without the consent of parliament. Now the claimants, in whose favour the court of Baden has been exerting itself, are of this description. It is true that some family-compact has been promulgated, with the consent of the late reigning Grand-duke of Baden, which provided a new and peculiar order of succession, elevated to the rank of princes of the grand-duchy his half-uncles (to use the German designation), and declared them capable of inheriting the sovereignty. This succession has accordingly taken place since his death. Still, although the right of a German sovereign prince be allowed to ennoble a subject, and to decree with respect to private property a new and peculiar interior order of succession for his own states, it by no means follows that he can decree a new order of succession for his own crown or coronet. He is bound in certain obligations to the Emperor, his feudal lord, and to the empire at large: which he cannot, even with the consent of his land-states, abrogate. A German prince is but an hereditary lord-lieutenant of his county, and cannot confer on himself the attributes and independence of royalty. If, therefore, the family-compact, promulgated at Carlsruhe, 4th October, 1817, be a regulation to the enactment of which the late Grand-duke Charles was not competent, the Emperor had a right to interfere, and to prevent its execution.

When a princely house in Germany is extinct, it is not a settled thing what is to become of the inheritance. In the parallel case of, the Bavarian war of 1778, which was terminated by the congress of Teschen in 1779, the mediation of Russia and France was called in to dispose of Bavaria itself. *A something* was adjudged to have lapsed to the Imperial crown, and the house of Austria took possession of it: other claims of dower were awarded to the court of Dresden: but the main inheritance, including the rights of sovereignty, devolved on the Palatine family. The house of Brandenburg, in its capacity of chieftain of the circle, has formerly absorbed some such windfalls; and reasons may be urged for using lapsed sovereignties as the catholic bishoprics in many parts of Germany have been used at the death of their respective incumbents, for the purpose of indemnifying those princes who, in a war of the empire, had made sacrifices to the common cause. Be it also observed that both Bavaria and Baden were, at a particular period of the war, in the hands of *Bonaparte*; that private arrangements were made by the allies with the King of Bavaria, which succeeded in detaching him from the French interest; and that the consequent recovery of his territories, and others that are contiguous, from the French, placed Baden in the state of *booty won by conquest*; over the eventual disposition of which the allies would claim a right of suffrage, even if they chose, from courtesy, to respect the apparent independence of the living sovereign.

ART. XVII. *Precis Historique*, &c.; *i. e.* An Historical Summary respecting the Presentation of the Confession of Augsburg to the Emperor Charles the Fifth, by several of the Princes, States, and Towns of Germany. A Posthumous Work of M. CHARLES DE VILLERS, Knight of the Polar Star, Professor in the University of Göttingen, &c. &c. &c. To which is added the Text of the Confession of Augsburg, in a new French Translation, accompanied by Notes. 12mo. Strasburg, Paris, and London, Treuttel and Würtz.

THE Reformation was the result of causes of which the operation had, for ages, been silently undermining the ecclesiastical establishments of Europe, and withdrawing the public opinion of the people from their support. Germany was the country in which it was first directly encouraged and powerfully supported by the civil authorities. The numerous independent sovereignties, into which that empire was divided, constituted a sort of republic, consisting of princes and free towns, under an imperial chief who was elected by some of the principal powers of the Union. These different powers, when meeting to deliberate on any measures of common interest, formed the Germanic Diet; and the attention of this Diet, about the time of which we are speaking, was warmly interested by the new opinions on religious topics that had begun openly to disturb the peace of the church, and to threaten the ecclesiastical supremacy of the court of Rome. That court had indeed been repeatedly solicited by the German Diet to convene a general council, in order to exert its authority in dispersing the rising storm of heretical opinion: but the cabinet of the Vatican had conceived a lively repugnance to general councils, since the high tone of authority which had been assumed by that of Constance in 1414. The German Diet was thus impelled by the ecclesiastical members, who formed a considerable part of its body, to make the religious innovations which had been begun by *Luther* the particular object of its consideration.

This formidable heresiarch was cited to appear at the Diet which was held at Worms in 1521; the Emperor himself being present at this meeting. *Luther* was condemned, and put under the ban of the empire: but the Elector of Saxony, Frederic the Wise, who had embraced the new opinions, had the magnanimity to protect him by whom they had been promulgated from the violence of his enemies, and to give him a temporary asylum in his dominions. The condemnation, however, was repeated in some subsequent Diets, particularly in that which was held at Spires in 1529; and it was on this last occasion that the German princes and powers, who had embraced the new faith, drew up a formal protest against the decree of the Diet, and thence acquired the name of *Protestants:* while the Swiss, and others, who followed the doctrines of *Zuingle* or of *Calvin*, were designated by the appellation of Reformed. M. DE VILLERS observes that persons are apt to confound these two denominations.

When the Emperor and the Diet condemned the doctrine of the Protestants, they had only a vague and confused notion of what it meant; and even a large portion of the European public, who began to take part in the controversy, were not much better informed. *Luther* and his principal partizans had, indeed, explained in their writings the tenets which they maintained: but these writings were comparatively known only to a few; and, of this few, all could not clearly discriminate the real doctrine in the cloud of polemical vapour in which it was involved. The enemies of the new sect were thus more at liberty to propagate misrepresentations of the creed which they espoused; and that creed was charged with being adverse to baptism, and with favouring Mohammedanism, sorcery, debauchery, and rebellion. The Protestants, therefore, embraced with avidity the first favourable opportunity of making a public and solemn confession of their doctrine, without any equivocation or disguise.

Charles V., who had concluded a treaty of peace with his formidable rival, Francis I., on the 5th of August, 1529, now found himself more at leisure to attend to the affairs of Germany; from which his thoughts had long been diverted by the ambitious wars in which he had been engaged. He beheld Germany divided or dividing into two great parties, Catholics and Protestants; and he meditated the aggrandizement of his own power, by taking advantage of their mutual dissensions to make both ultimately subservient to his views. He accordingly summoned a Diet to meet at Augsburg in the following spring: in order, as he expressed it in his summons, that mutual explanations might bring both parties to a good understanding; that all dissensions might be avoided for the time to come; and that henceforth they might have one faith in the church, as they had one law in the empire.

The Elector of Saxony, and the other princes and chiefs in the Protestant interest, arrived at Augsburg in the beginning of May; bringing with them the different divines, by whom they were to be assisted in theological debate: but *Luther* was left at Cobourg, because the Elector did not wish to seem to defy the Emperor by his presence. Before the meeting of the Diet, however, *Luther* had drawn up an exposition of the Protestant creed in seventeen articles: but, as these were not deemed sufficiently satisfactory or conciliatory by the Protestant leaders at Augsburg, *Melanchthon* was unanimously selected to revise, alter, or enlarge those articles; and to form the whole into such a Confession of Faith as might be most agreeable to the general wish, and might most conduce to the common good. *Melanchthon* performed the delicate task with an ability and a moderation which were universally approved. Indeed, when we consider the violent ferment which prevailed at the time, the bitter animosity which slight disputes would occasion, and the very minute shades of difference, which with the acute polemics of that day were sufficient to separate orthodox truth from heretical error, we cannot but admire the singular example of good sense and moderation which the *Confession of Augsburg* displays.

The Emperor, having made his entry into Augsburg on the evening of the fifteenth of June, immediately issued a mandate to the Protestant princes to prohibit their clergy from mounting the pulpit; and, in a second message, he invited them to assist in the procession of the host, which was to take place on the following morning. With some reluctance, they complied with the first requisition: but they were inflexible in their determination not to conform to the second; and their excuses were accepted by the Emperor. On Friday, 24th June, the Diet met in the Town-hall. All the avenues were filled by an immense concourse of people; and there seemed to be a determination to put off the reading of the Confession, which had been fixed for that day. Cardinal *Campeggio*, the papal legate, opened the sitting, and pronounced an elaborate harangue against the Protestants. Some deputies from Austria and Istria were afterward introduced, who implored the Emperor to assist them against an invasion of the Turks. The day was now drawing to a close, when the Protestants demanded to be heard. After many delays, they were told that the meeting was on the point of breaking up; that time was not left for reading the Confession; and that it would be quite sufficient to communicate the original to the Emperor. The Protestants loudly exclaimed against this conduct, as a violation of a formal engagement; and at last, after much dissension, it was agreed that the Confession should be read on the ensuing Saturday.

On this day, the Emperor did not chuse to make his appearance in the Town-hall, but convened the assembly in a much smaller apartment in the episcopal palace, which was not capable of holding more than two hundred persons. The great court of this palace, however, was filled with an anxious multitude. The Diet met about three or four o'clock in the afternoon. The two chancellors of the Elector of Saxony took their station in the open space before the throne, in order to read the important and highly interesting document; and the Protestant princes and chiefs stood up in order to testify their respect for this solemn confession of their faith, which was going to be proclaimed: but they resumed their seats at the desire of the

Emperor. Two copies of the Confession had been prepared; one of which was in the German, and the other in the Latin language. The Emperor, who understood but little German, and who probably imagined that the people who were present had as little knowlege of the Latin, at first required that the Confession should be read in the latter tongue: but the princes objected to this proposition; and the Elector of Saxony in particular demanded that, as they were in a German city, the confession should be read in the native idiom of Germany. The Emperor at last acceded to this request.—The Chancellor *Brück* then made a short prefatory speech, when his colleague *Bayer* commenced the reading of the Confession; which he performed with such a loud voice, and such a clear articulation, that every word was heard even by the people in the court without. The reading occupied two hours; and, during the whole time, as profound a silence prevailed as if every person except the speaker had been dumb.

When the Confession had been read, the Emperor directed the Count Palatine to declare to the Protestant states that he should take time to deliberate on this important business, and would make them acquainted with his resolves. The Chancellor *Brück*, holding in his hand the two copies of the Confession, was going to give them to one of the Imperial secretaries, when the Emperor himself rose, and, advancing towards the Chancellor, took them into his own hand. He afterward sent the German confession to the Elector of Mentz, in order to be desposited in the archives of the empire: but he kept the Latin in his own possession, and took it with him to Brussels. The Princes and States who had signed the Confession were the Elector of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, the Duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the towns of Nuremburg and Reutlingen; to which four others were added before the breaking up of the Diet. The number of signatures was afterward increased; till, in the congress which was held at Nuremburg in 1561, it was subscribed without any exceptions by all the Princes and States in the Protestant interest.

Copies of the Confession, translated into the different languages, were soon dispersed over all Europe; and no Imperial decrees or condemnations were able to stop the progress of the doctrine, or prevent the dissemination of the principles. The Confession itself served as a centre of union to the Protestants in Germany; tending very much to consolidate that body, and to form a mass of collective strength against the inveterate hostility and arrogant pretensions of the church of Rome. Confessions of faith, however, and digests of doctrinal articles, which were of great importance in the infancy of Protestantism, have grown less necessary in proportion as education has become less confined, and scriptural knowlege been more generally diffused. The interpreters of Scripture have thus been indefinitely multiplied; and a necessity has arisen for a more enlarged and more comprehensive toleration, than the first seceders from the church of Rome could ever imagine that the state of society and the increase of knowlege would require. The Confession of Augsburg, when first published, was, no doubt, a fair representation of the state of religious opinion among the German Protestants: but that opinion has since undergone a considerable change; and the Confession no longer truly expresses the living opinions of the Lutheran church, any more than the real sentiments of the present English clergy are delineated in the thirty-nine articles of our established church. To attempt to fix the standard of opinion, indeed, on religious and metaphysical subjects, seems to be as vain as it would be to commence a course of experiments in order to destroy the elasticity of the atmosphere; and, though divines of different sects may fancy that their dogmas are made up of immutable solidity, they are perhaps only the vapid products of a diseased imagination, and as unsubstantial as the most attenuated gas.

Art. XVIII. *Les Benjamites rétablis en Israël, &c.*; *i. e.* The Benjamites re-established in Israël; a Poem, translated from the Hebrew, by M. De Maleville, Member of the French Royal Society of Antiquaries. 8vo. pp. 300. Paris. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz.

In our opinion, this is a very tiresome performance. It borrows largely from the Bible, without paying any thing in return; that is, it takes sentiments, expressions, and verses, without giving in exchange either feeling or melody. It is written in measured prose; in which although we have frequently the cadence, we have scarcely ever the charm, of verse; — because, before there is a possibility of being pleased by the music of poetry, perfect prose intervenes, and cuts short the growing pleasure of the reader.

The scriptural story of the Benjamites is here augmented by all orthodox and apocryphal traditions; with a faint and feeble application also of the main events to the Bonapartes and the Bourbons and the Benjamites. The poem, in a word, may be called the apotheosis of the three B's!

"Three blue beans in one blue bladder," &c. &c. &c.

On such a waste of insipidity and common-place reflection, (except when the writer is a mere copyist of the Scriptures,) it would be equally a waste of time to expatiate; and we scarcely know how to select any thing from a work which bears nearly the same relation to the Telemachus of *Fénelon*, that the version of Homer by Cowper bears to the original. Assuredly both the works, the Benjamites and the Telemachus, are, properly speaking, in prose; and assuredly the Death of Abel by *Gessner*, and the *Estelle* of *Florian*, were also in prose: but how possible is it for things apparently very like to be really very different! Here is the business of judgment, to separate these seeming congruities; as, on the contrary, the pleasant task of wit is to bring good-humoured discrepancies together. *

No such discrepancies occur in the present work. It is barely possible for the author and the reader to differ at first and yet be reconciled at the last. It affords no change, no relief, no contrast; *all* is heavy; *all* subdues the flippancy of France with the leaden ore of Germany; and *all* adulterates the small portion of integrity in that ore with the light and good-for-nothing tin of its neighbour!

——"*Alterius sic*
Altera poscit opem res, et conjurat amicè,
Et levibus gravior prodest Germania Gallis."

Its grotesque mixture of the sacred and profane style, its antient Hebrew dashed with modern French, affords an additional proof to many others that this book is a mere recent manufactory; and that the flimsy veil of originality thrown over it can deceive those alone, who are credulous enough to believe in the existence of any Hebrew compositions of this nature, as old as the age of the Maccabees.

ART. XIX. *Mémoire, &c.*; *i. e.* A Memoir on the present Situation of Germany. By M. DE S——, Counsellor of State to the Emperor of Russia. 8vo. pp. 66. Paris. November, 1818.

THE title of Memoir is not, in the present case, indicative of an official report, but of a tract or essay given to the public without any authority, and even without a name: — the production of a man possessed evidently of talents, but little accustomed to the task of composition. Mr. Hume long since remarked that no attention was due to any philosophy which did not descend to particulars; and such writers as M. DE S., or our philanthropic countryman, Mr. Owen of Lanark, would do well to recollect that a series of general effusions is ill calculated to create a favourable or even a distinct impression on the mind of their readers. After some high-flown encomiums on the importance of Germany, and its fame in history since the days of the Romans, M. DE S. proceeds to make a few observations on its present condition, and on that popular discontent which is rendered evident by several recent occurrences; such as the insubordination of the students at Universities; troubles in Saxony on the ground of religion; an increase in the number of emigrants, particularly from Wirtemberg; and, lastly, an almost unanimous demand for an improved constitution in Prussia and the central part of Germany. He ascribes this unsettled state of things to various causes; first, to the confusion arising out of the late wars and political changes; and, secondly, to defects in the system of national education. To these he adds complaints on the score of religion; on which we forbear to dwell, because, from the general disposition to toleration in Germany, we have difficulty in subscribing to the author's views in this respect. He is most explicit on the important topic of education, and recommends considerable reform in the Universities; partly by suppressing academical privileges and subjecting the students to the local magistracy; partly by fixing definitely the course of study for each particular profession, and preventing any deviations from the prescribed routine without the sanction of the heads of the University.

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* See the definitions of Locke, in the Essay on Human Understanding.

Another and a less acceptable proposition is that of restraining the liberty of the press, and, in particular, of the Newspapers; Germany being in his opinion much less fit for this kind of freedom than England. To this more than questionable advice is added a recommendation to which no person can object, viz. a reduction of public expence, by new modelling the plan of interior administration in various parts of the country. Whoever has visited the Continent, and contrasted the complexity of the wheels of government in France or Germany with the simplicity of our own, will readily subscribe to the opinion of the author, and regret that in this, as on other topics, he did not point out more clearly and decidedly the nature of the proposed remedy.

I N D E X

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

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